JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

UNIVERSITY
OF MICHIGAN
MAY 12 1952
PERIODICAL
READING ROOM

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION
OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

APRIL 1952 • VOL. XXII • No. 8

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

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JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL is published monthly from September to May, inclusive. Subscription: $3.50 a year, 50 cents a copy. Group subscriptions, to faculty of institutions which are members of the American Association of Junior Colleges: $2.00 a year. Communications regarding editorial matters should be addressed to James W. Reynolds, College of Education, The University of Texas, P.O. Box 2118, Austin 12, Texas. Correspondence regarding advertisements and subscriptions should be addressed to Jesse P. Bogue, executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Entered as second-class matter November 22, 1938, at the Post Office at Washington, D.C., under the Act of March 3, 1879. Additional entry at Austin, Texas, August 20, 1949.

[Printed in U. S. A.]

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The Uses of Adversity

ARTHUR S. ADAMS

THE junior colleges have long played an important role in the American Council on Education. Not only is the American Association of Junior Colleges an organization member, with its central office in the Council building, but seventy-four individual institutions also hold Council memberships. The Council publishes the standard reference volume, *American Junior Colleges,* now in its third edition. More significant than any of these concrete items, however, is the general fact that through the Council, junior colleges have the opportunity to join the other agencies in higher education for the support of policies and projects of mutual interest.

It is often said that shared adversity draws people and institutions together. Observation indicates that it may also tend to pull them apart. We unite if we are thoroughly committed to a common cause. If we lack such a commitment, we tend to think primarily of our own advantage. Decreasing enrollment and increasing costs are forcing all educational institutions in these times to review their objectives and operations. There are numerous signs that, in the case of education, our present and prospective difficulties are creating stronger bonds between educational institutions and the communities they serve, as well as bringing about a healthy coordination of effort among the institutions themselves.

In the area of closer community relationships, junior colleges are especially qualified to take the lead. Many of them are community enterprises serving the educational needs primarily of the people of their own localities. It is gratifying to note the expanded programs being undertaken by a number of junior colleges in such fields as industry—related training, adult education, special courses for women, work-study programs, and broad educational service to the community. Junior colleges are active also in the programs of regional cooperation that have grown phenomenally in the last few years throughout the country. Institutions of higher learning are banding together to avoid duplication of effort within states and in regions covering several states. By working together, they are achieving both economy and efficiency, as well as establishing bonds of relationship that affect all their activities. This sort of constructive response

to the pressures of the times emphasizes the vitality and strength which has characterized the growth of junior colleges ever since their first establishment.

Today, there is a widespread feeling among junior college administrators, as Dr. Jesse P. Bogue has noted, that junior colleges are in the midst of a "squeeze play." In my judgment the situation that exists does not arise from any deliberate calling of the play by any particular group but from the operation of a number of circumstances inherent in our total national position. One of our greatest problems is to come to the clear recognition in every aspect of our national life that this is no time for business as usual. On the other hand, it is not a time for the sort of all-out emergency activity which Americans have proved they are so capable of mustering in an acute total crisis. If it were not contradictory to use the two words together, we might describe the present as a time of chronic crisis. We are faced with a continuing succession of decisions to be made and each of them, as in the very meaning of "crisis," has grave significance for the future.

For many reasons, the impact on the junior college of many of our current problems is especially great. It is very much to their credit that they are facing the facts with clear-eyed realism and are showing zeal and determination in accepting the responsibilities of meeting the challenge they face. Such response is wholly in accord with the fundamental basis of our national and educational philosophy that human life really progresses only in the measure that it overcomes the limitation of environmental circumstance. In many regions, the junior colleges are the latest arrivals on the scene. Often it is more difficult for them than for long-established institutions to find ways and means of making their full educational contribution of "pulling their full weight in the boat." Yet their survival, and, more important, the realization of their potential strength, depends on their becoming firmly recognized as an essential, integral part of the total educational establishment in their own areas and in the nation.

The junior colleges have provided, and in the year ahead will increasingly provide, unique educational opportunity for many thousands of our young men and young women. As institutions, therefore, they have important responsibilities in higher education, and the American Council on Education is happy to offer facilities for accelerating the process of their integration into the total pattern of education. This service is a specific application of the Council's general purpose—to bring together, in terms of common objectives and mutual support, all the American agencies dedicated to the promotion, through education, of the welfare of our country and the world.

*Edward L. Clark**

EDWARD L. CLARK, church and civic leader of Portland for thirty-three years, was born in Summertown, Tennessee, May 29, 1892.

In 1919 Dr. Clark, then a young teacher from the Chicago YMCA, went to Portland as dean of the YMCA school of business administration. In 1926 he became president of the Oregon Institute of Technology which five years later was organized as a junior college and became known as Multnomah College in 1945.

When the junior college was organized in 1931, this new type of institution between the secondary school and college was fighting for its life over the entire United States. It took courage to establish a junior college in those days, but fortunately that was just what Dr. Clark had.

The essential function of the junior college as President Clark saw it was to serve directly the community in every way possible, to find out through careful surveys what courses of study were desired by eager young people who wanted an education both for immediate and long-range needs, and to provide these courses, especially if no other Portland college offered them. Being a man of unusual intelligence and broad sympathy he appealed to ambitious young people who did not have the money or the inclination to attend a four-year institution. He sought out worthy students who needed specialized training in technical and business fields two years beyond high school and made it possible for them to get the education they needed.

Perhaps Dr. Clark's greatest contribution was his realization of the value of combining general and special education in his community college curriculum. He could have made Multnomah College a trade school offering a whole range of practical courses, but he realized that the United States was in the midst of a technical revolution and that it would be a mistake to permit the college to become a specialized trade school with no background of general education. He recognized that man does not live by bread alone: that a competent workman must also understand the responsibilities of citizenship. He will always be remembered as a great educational and civic leader whose untiring efforts helped to make the junior college a recognized institution.

*Edward L. Clark, Editorial Board Representative of the junior colleges in the Northwest States, died March 25, 1952, in Portland, Oregon.

This article was prepared by Dr. Ernest J. Jaqua.

Curiosity of Youth and the Future of Science

HAROLD H. PUNKE

PARENTS know the many questions of five-year-olds, as teachers know those of elementary school children. Before high school is reached important changes may occur. Teachers at this level often consider students apathetic, and college professors may find them "allergic" to new ideas. Not all persons follow this pattern, but the decline in curiosity and the inquiring attitude occur often enough to deserve attention—especially by persons interested in research or other creative work that is based on persistent curiosity and inquiry. This article examines certain factors and implications of the changes noted.

Energy basis for curiosity and inquiry. Active inquiry demands attention and a reaching out for new experience—it demands more energy than complacency. Persons who are ill, underfed, or for other reasons have little energy are not likely to show much curiosity. Some children and youth use so much energy on non-school work that little remains for school learning. This situation occurs at elementary, secondary, and college levels. Play and extra-curricular activities may likewise claim much energy at these levels. However the direction of either work or play activities may greatly affect their learning value—aside from energy demands.

Dependence of curiosity on previous learning. The average five-year-old knows little compared with his parents. However he is surrounded by new objects and situations which create pressure on him to learn. The people around him who get things done know more than he knows—and seem to get along better because of this fact. His curiosity is stimulated because he can learn much through observing adults and through questions which they can readily answer.

Much of the boredom of parents and teachers at the questions of children results from three causes: (1) Children do not remember well, and repeatedly ask the same questions. (2) They do not differentiate questions asking for easy answers from those demanding long explanations. (3) Adults have numerous demands on them which children do not understand —but which adults may consider more important at the moment than answering questions for children.

Before adolescence a person ordinarily learns many things. He is able to circulate widely in the community and through some part-time job he may have earned money —as adults earn. By this time he

has also developed attitudes—some of which relate to curiosity and learning.

The curiosity of youth and adults differs from that of five-year-olds. (1) Much simple learning which can be gained by casual observation and questioning has already been mastered. For additional learning one must rise above sporadic questions. Careful observations are necessary—perhaps involving experimental apparatus, scientific measures, and elaborate records. Questions must now be taken to "experts"—they cannot be answered by laymen, casual observation, or popular literature. Thus the more one knows, the more difficult it is to expand his learning in a particular direction.

Usually the change from simple to complex learning is more gradual than suggested, but the pattern is the same. In complex Western society so much knowledge has acccumulated that no one can learn it all. Hence anyone who seeks to increase knowledge must specialize. Before one can add to existing knowledge on a subject, he must learn most of what is already known about it. Hence for scientists, philosophers, artists, and others continuously to expand knowledge they must use increasingly refined instruments, undertake more comprehensive research, and devote energy to limited areas of learning.

(2) Because of complexities in adding to knowledge, many learning habits must previously have been mastered. One habit concerns persistence of effort. Transient interests which characterize five-year-olds will not do the job. Breadth of attention, capacity to discard irrelevant suggestions, and persistence in the face of discouragement are needed traits. Perhaps it is only child psychologists who observe children closely enough to recognize the beginnings of such traits in them.

Among discouragements faced by a child who seeks knowledge is the effort of adults to "squelch" him. The adults may think he is too immature for the information requested, they may fear losing their control over him if they appear unable to answer his questions, or they may simply not want to devote so much time to his questions. Being "squelched" probably causes some people to stop trying but causes others to seek new approaches. Which result follows will depend on such factors as habit, self-confidence, frequency and persistence of obstacles, attractiveness of goals, and encouragement from fellow workers—or fellow learners.

(3) Typical children and adults also differ concerning time and energy demanded by non-learning activities. Growing and learning are the main activities of young children. However no modern nation could exist if learning and satisfying curiosity was the main activity of its adults. Adults must produce food, manufacture industrial goods, and render professional

service. These activities are carried on by persons who *have acquired* considerable knowledge and skill, but *could not* be carried on by persons who make the *development of additional knowledge* their main activity. Hence learning cannot be a major interest of every adult as it is for every child. In a society with minute vocational specialization and division of labor, learning beyond a certain level also becomes a specialized job. Persons who extend the boundaries of knowledge must usually be specialists.

Level of civilization as stimulus to curiosity. The amount of learning needed by an average person depends partly on the general level of civilization about him. In a peasant economy, with most people living on the land and practicing a simple hoe-culture from generation to generation, the small amount of learning needed can be acquired early in life. Hence vocational maturity comes at an early age—with mere routine applications later on. In a complex society the individual can and must make more adjustments. As more knowledge exists than in a simple environment, so there are more avenues to stimulate curiosity.

Schools are intended to stimulate curiosity and mental growth. For most students, schools are superior to the non-school world in providing systematic learning experience. For children with superior non-school environments, schools are not as great assets as for average children. Since one's capacity is relative to existing stimulus and opportunity, the learning achievement of youth depends on the capacity and interest of the adults who provide this environment. In Washington's day it was not possible to learn as much as today because less knowledge existed, and by the year 2,000 it will probably be possible to learn more than today.

The level of curiosity and learning suggested in the two foregoing paragraphs will not extend existing knowledge through experimentation, reconstruction, or other creative processes. Those levels merely imply that one will catch up with what has accumulated. But since a youth in a complex environment has an opportunity to learn more than one in a simple environment, he can acquire more raw material for use in imagination. Regardless of the complexity of civilization, however, there is usually an area of change within it. This area includes both distintegration and reintegration of old elements—with some new knowledge. But whether the particular civilization is simple or complex, those who expand knowledge must go beyond the level already attained. This "going beyond" involves creation—apart from borrowing or stealing from abroad. Every youth should realize that in learning along any particular line, the environment cannot supply information and suggestion beyond a certain point. Exploration beyond

that point rests on the initiative of the individual worker and his capacity to create. Such creation is "basic research"—the contributions on which long-range human betterment primarily depends.

Role of self-confidence and the urge to create. Although broad experience is essential to creativeness, not everybody with such experience will be creative. Some people with adequate backgrounds lack self-confidence. If one thinks that other persons may "do great things" but *he* never could, he is not likely to achieve them. Likewise if one thinks that because of some divine ordering of the universe mankind was not supposed to know any more than is reflected in present knowledge, he is not likely to expand the boundaries of learning. Confidence that there is a solution for any problem which can be formulated will do much more to stimulate effort than a sense of fatalism or an inferiority complex. People in a society which operates on the philosophy that life will be largely what men make it are likely to enjoy greater comfort and satisfaction, as they strive to expand knowledge and control over nature, than people in a society which is dominated by the philosophy that man's lot is foreordained or that his life is controlled by fate. The philosophy that "man is master of his fate" and is responsible for his own future can be stimulating and fruitful.

A sense of worthwhileness is needed. One might be confident that he can achieve certain goals but not think it worth the effort. Two major problems seem involved—one concerns general education. The society in which one is reared determines his scale of values. With the large proportion of youth who attend high schools and colleges, these institutions might greatly help youth analyze our culture and recognize the elements which have historically contributed most to human well-being, and might help youth study the kinds of leaders which have been honored in different civilizations.

Changing one's scale of values, as a means of modifying desire to make creative contributions, may seem intangible and inadequate alone. Such tangible items as adequate libraries, laboratories, workshops, and other facilities will encourage workers, as will association with co-workers. Income for maintaining workers must be included. While laboratories and other facilities require substantial sums, the amount needed by scientists for personal maintenance seems less than that publicized as being used for such purposes by leaders in business, entertainment, or the social registers. In creative fields even more than elsewhere, the balancing of rewards and achievements is difficult. But since human betterment depends largely on creative achievement, a continuing re-evaluation is a social necessity.

Other ways to foster creativeness. An atmosphere of freedom

and security for work seems basic for creativeness. The importance of skill in using libraries, manipulating apparatus, making new equipment, recording observations, and applying statistical or other analytical techniques should be obvious. Schools, colleges, and some technical agencies now do much in developing such skills. Among attitudes, confidence has been mentioned. Sometimes it is called faith in oneself or in one's methods. An attitude of self-analysis and scrutiny, along with standards for analyzing and scrutinizing, is important. So is alertness to new interests, and a view that by actively seeking significant interests one will eventually find them. Attention to ways of developing meaningful associations with people who are doing important work also has value. However, with the reaching out for new experiences it is essential to establish a central core. Sustained attention to such a core is especially important in a society with many areas of specialized knowledge—if one avoids dissipating his energies in various directions.

A factor of chance also seems to be involved. Its role here is the same as in imagination generally. The elements which constitute a particular imaginative situation come from past experience. Hence persons with comprehensive experience usually have more vigorous imaginations than other persons. But even a person with comprehensive experience never knows which elements of that experience will come into consciousness in a particular connection—that is, enter into a particular imaginative situation. An individual may possess fruitful elements for many situations but be unable to bring them into play at the right time. His "trend of thought" or "mental set" is important—including specific anxieties and tensions. This is one reason why varied attacks on a problem made at different times often help. An imagination consisting of different elements comes into play at the different times. Varied attack may also help because a complex problem may more easily be broken into simpler problems through one attack than through another—as a fort may be more easily captured through one approach than through another. Thus an individual may possess information that is not available for use because of the way it is tied to other information, or because of emotional tensions that inhibit recall or other mental processes.

Educational implications. Since high schools and junior colleges are primarily institutions of general education, their students include both future scientists and future laymen. Both groups should understand how creative imagination functions, and the circumstances which foster creativeness. For the future of science, it is important that laymen have this understanding because they constitute the bulk of the population and

largely determine the social atmosphere and the economic support for scientific work. Such understanding is essential for the scientist to develop his specialized competence.

Some understanding of the circumstances under which creative contributions have historically been made should be included—i. e., the extent to which discoveries have come in clusters. Thus discovery of the microscope was rapidly followed by other discoveries which depended on it. The same could be said of the rotary press in printing and publication, the steam engine in industry, airplanes in transportation and war, antibiotics in medicine, or atomic energy in various fields. Creative workers might avoid some discouragement by realizing that development in no field has for very long advanced at a steady pace. "Developmental" work may long await a key discovery—which acts as dynamite in a log-jam, to let the flood come.

High school and college guidance programs could improve the picture which most youth now get of circumstances which foster creativeness. But if guidance workers in such institutions are to be especially helpful they need the aid of persons who have already been recognized for their creative work. Certain assumptions are here implied. One is that a creative worker is so enthusiastic about his field that he would like to see others enter and help explore it. A second assumption is that by explanation and example a student might learn from such a worker the most fruitful procedures—although scientists and creative artists are sometimes notoriously poor teachers. One other assumption—that the social prestige of a recognized worker will cause youth to accept his suggestions.

A quarter century ago scientists were often criticized for aloofness. Some even prided themselves on having discovered something laymen could not understand, and expressed hope that no practical use would be found for it. Since that time industrial companies have increasingly built research departments to apply science to their productive efforts. Probably this work might be called "programmed research," with each worker engaged on a program designed to achieve specific ends—whether the company manufactures drugs, steel, automobiles, food, building materials, or other items. Programmed research usually aims to apply existing knowledge. Through advertising and the use of products the public has come to understand and accept much "applied research." There has been no similar heralding of the virtues of basic research.

Under the circumstances described the role of educational institutions seems threefold. (1) Colleges and perhaps secondary schools should help train technicians for jobs in programmed research—to work under others on largely routine activities. (2) Secondary

schools and colleges should develop in youth a clear picture of the differences between basic and applied research, with some understanding of the demands and rewards associated with each—and with an understanding of the importance for civilization of basic research as the source on which applied science must feed. (3) Universities will probably be the main sponsors of basic research and similar creative work—with wide leeway for the worker regarding problems studied and methods used. The role of government in supporting basic research, through scholarships, research contracts, or otherwise, seems an open question. However it now seems that the greatest contribution of schools at different levels to the further development of knowledge and control by man over nature will be through basic research—in developing a popular understanding of what it means and why it is important, in recruiting workers and developing creativeness in them, and in providing facilities through which mature workers will make contributions.

Although some foregoing terminology refers specifically to science, most of the ideas apply to both social and natural sciences—also to philosophy, art, and other creative fields.

Summary and conclusions.

1. Most persons decline in curiosity between pre-school years and adulthood. For scientists and others interested in research or other creative work in which curiosity is essential, it is important to ask why the decline occurs and how it can be regulated.

2. The activity needed to reach out for new experience to satisfy curiosity demands much energy. Hence vigorous curiosity should not be expected of persons who cannot produce abundant energy or who must use most of it for other activities. However, a "will to achieve" may influence the use of whatever energy one has.

3. The direction and persistence of one's curiosity at a particular age depends on previous learning and habit. Because a child is surrounded by so much that he does not know, his environment presses on him to learn. By adulthood he has mastered enough learning for routine living. Thereafter most persons devote most of their energy to vocational, civic, home, and similar responsibilities. Hence the further learning on which an extension of knowledge depends is a specialized job—rather than a job for every adult.

4. The amount which one can learn is limited by the level of the civilization in which he lives. A complex civilization affords more learning opportunities than a primitive culture. But every youth should realize that, regardless of whether a particular civilization is simple or complex, there is a level beyond which one cannot rise simply by mastering knowledge that already exists. Further advancement depends on capacity and

initiative to discover and create—to do "basic research."

5. Along with capacity for creative work, *confidence* in that capacity and a sense of the importance of such work should be emphasized.

6. Chance seems important in whether one's imagination in a particular setting will yield fruitful suggestions—that is, specific elements of experience which become associated seem partly a result of chance. However one should examine and minimize the sphere of chance.

7. Certain educational implications of the discussion seem important.

a. Since high school and college students include both future laymen and future scientists, general education should include the understanding of how a creative mind operates and the circumstances most favorable for its operation. This is important for scientists who apply the knowledge to their own activities, and for laymen who determine the support and social atmosphere for the creative work done.

b. High schools and colleges have responsibility for the general education mentioned. Colleges and possibly high schools also have responsibility to prepare technicians for various aspects of "programmed research" in which individuals are allotted segments of research undertakings. Universities have a major responsibility to prepare workers for "basic research," and to supply facilities for substantial amounts of such research.

8. Persons who are interested in recruiting and preparing youth for scientific and other creative work should enlist the aid of persons who have already been recognized for creative work. Such persons should be helpful regarding both inspiration and techniques.

Students Advise Faculty Advisers

MARY RAIT

MESA College, a co-educational county junior college, long had a program whereby faculty members counseled students. The student would be assigned to a faculty counselor on the basis of his academic and/or vocational interest when he enrolled in the college. This staff member would be his counselor as long as he remained in the school, unless for a valid reason one or the other requested transfer. This plan worked well, but in the fall of 1951, it was decided to have second year students work with the counselors. The plan is not original—many four-year colleges and universities have used upper division students as helpers, and several junior colleges have used second year students in this capacity.

Mesa College students have handled the freshman week student activity and social program for years. Shortly before the end of the 1950-51 school year, the student council volunteered the plan of sophomore assistance with the entire orientation program for the coming year. They felt that freshmen would ask questions and discuss problems with them which they might hesitate to mention to a faculty member.

About twenty sophomores who were willing to work on the program and who had qualities of stability and leadership were chosen. A committee of students from the student council and the deans of men and women made the selections. It proved impractical for the students to meet until just before Freshman Week, so the orientation given the group was hasty and incomplete. At the meetings of this group the student president, the delegate who had attended the National Student Association convention, and the two deans discussed methods and impressed upon the members of the group the responsibility they were assuming.

The student counselors were on hand to assist with pre-registration counseling and with registration as well as with the big-and-little sister picnic and the all school mixers of Freshman Week.

The freshman orientation course extends through the twelve weeks of the first quarter; students have weekly meetings with faculty counselors. Most of the staff members act as counselors, and orientation groups range from six or seven students in such specialized subjects as music and art, to over twenty in other groups. Students, as well as faculty members, are given a syllabus containing an outline of topics to be discussed with a bibliography for each topic. The course includes such topics as Policies and Philosophy of the College; Study Habits; Organizations, Activities and Opportunities in College; Design for Living

(personality, dress, manners, etc.); personal conferences concerning work at mid-term. Here, the counselor seeks to analyze and help solve difficulties any students have with courses, load, or adjustment to school. After mid-term the topics discussed include: use of time and money; a unit on health, including good attitudes and mental health; a vocational unit which is begun with a vocational preference test, followed by individual interpretations of the test, study of vocational abilities, opportunities, methods of obtaining a job and of self-improvement while on the job. Following a unit on the Art of Conversation and social living, the orientation course closes with registration counseling for the winter quarter.

Each group proceeds at its own pace, spending more than one week's session of one hour on any topics it finds most valuable. The sophomore counselors chose orientation sections in which to work, largely by major fields. One or two sophomores helped in each section. They discussed methods to be used with the faculty counselor whose section they attended. How active a part the student assistant played depended upon the student and his particular abilities, the faculty member and how skillfully he oriented his helper, and upon the week's topic and the group of students concerned. All the student assistants sat in as helpers and stimulators. On certain topics such as organizations, social activities in college or social life, social usage and dress, the sophomore took over the meeting and conducted it in several of the sections. The assistants also looked up material and made reports.

The faculty members were found to be enthusiastic about the innovation shortly before the end of the first quarter. Degrees of enthusiasm varied, but even those staff members who had been faintly skeptical at the outset reported that they had found better attendance and increased interest in the orientation classes. A number reported watching the development of their student assistants with great satisfaction.

The sophomores concerned liked the program. They assumed the responsibility well and expressed no regrets over the loss of an otherwise free period, nor over the added work which they undertook. They found real satisfaction in the relationship. In reality, they probably benefited more than anyone else from this undertaking. The freshmen responded more freely and no doubt have a better start on their school year because of the contribution of these sophomores.

A faculty committee has been at work at the time of writing, January, 1952, endeavoring to improve the entire student personnel program of the college. The student council was asked to name members to this committee. The first matter to which the group has

given attention has been the orientation course. A questionnaire has been submitted to all students, freshmen and sophomores, to learn their reaction to the course as it has been carried out.

The orientation program has been an evolution program in Mesa College. From a few lectures given to the Freshman class as a whole to the present small discussion groups, it has sought to meet the needs of new students. The change outlined here has been one of the most beneficial introduced.

For the next year's work in orientation, it is planned to get the group of sophomore assistants together in the spring and give them more adequate help to prepare them for their important work in the fall of 1952.

Instructor Rating Sheets

WALTER E. RAUCH

MANY devices have been developed and used for determining the effectiveness of an instructor's teaching procedures. However, the predominant evaluation must always rest with the students. All tests and measurements not based directly on the students' evaluation are necessarily checking collateral matters, not the fundamentals.

This conclusion leads to an analysis of the student's ability to evaluate an instructor's teaching. Although there has been much discussion on this subject and although some teachers insist that the students lack the maturity to perform such a task, careful thought on the subject will discount much of this criticism. The vast majority of the college students are on the campus to learn. These students certainly can evaluate what they accomplished in any one class. They are the only ones who are in constant attendance, and, therefore, they are the only ones who can give a general composite evaluation. Other criteria, such as formalized testing on subject matter, the writing of term papers, or student 'success' questionnaires, all contain so many variables that these results must be seriously discounted. Only an objective rating sheet can possibly give the desired results.

The faculty attitude toward the test and the manner of presentation are important. Unless the faculty is sincerely enthusiastic and conveys this enthusiasm to the students filling out the rating sheets, the entire plan is useless. If the students understand that the classroom procedures constitute collective processes in which the instructor tries to impart certain material and that both the instructor and the students are failures unless learning takes place, the students will always be cooperative. In other words, any average class will be happy to participate in an enterprise which may help its members to receive better lectures in the future or which will at least be of help to the students who are to follow them. The classes which fill out rating sheets must be completely in the confidence of the faculty. They must clearly understand the reasons for the rating sheets. Then, the results will be valid and of tremendous value.

The exact procedure of giving the tests depends upon the local situation and the type of relationship which exists between the faculty and the students. Instructors could distribute the rating sheets in their own classes and keep their own records, or they could give the rating sheets in individual or mass student meetings with a departmental record kept of the results. The students could be asked to sign their names or return the papers without identification. The exact procedure is in-

consequential as long as the most accurate results are obtained, and the instructors use them to improve their teaching methods.

The findings of a limited study indicated that the best results were achieved when each instructor conducted his own class examinations of the rating sheets and asked the students not to sign their names. The reason for the first requirement was that some faculty members feared the results would become the basis for promotions or advancement. Consequently, they endeavored to get artificial results which were always complimentary. These false results were sometimes obtained by the instructors without their knowledge. There were actual cases where the instructors almost made an indirect plea for generosity on the part of the students. Without direct words, the students felt the plea of the instructor and naturally gave only favorable verdicts. Therefore, it will probably be found to be most satisfactory if each instructor gives his own classes these rating sheets and if he uses the results as he sees fit. For exactly the same reason, it was found better not to have the students sign their names. In order to reach a clear evaluation, however, it was necessary to learn the difference in the opinions of the good and the poor students. Therefore, these questionnaires asked the students to indicate in general terms their scholastic standing. Such information enabled the instructor to decide if his classes were slanted to intellectual levels of the various students.

To facilitate further the instructor's study of the results, a list of possible reasons was added. It was of little value to learn that an instructor was poor, good, or excellent on any given point if he did not know the reasons for his rating. Therefore, explanations for the rating were placed in each succeeding paragraph. These reasons can easily be improved, or at least they can be changed to apply more directly to meet some local situation. The main point is to develop an attitude of honest interest in the student's evaluation and then to use this finding to improve each instructor's teaching procedures. If this can be achieved, many of the 'crimes of teaching' under which students do not accomplish any learning may be alleviated.

Instructor Rating Sheet

To aid your instructor to understand your opinion of his teaching methods and thereby improve his teaching effectiveness, please fill out this rating sheet as honestly and fairly as you can. Do Not Sign Your Name!

Instructions: After each listed item, give a grade from *F* to *A*. These letter grades mean the following: *A*—excellent; *B*—very good; *C*—fair or average; *D*—poor; *F*—completely failing.

It is absolutely essential that you also place checks in the parentheses preceding as many of the words which explain the reason for your grade as apply to that particular selection. For the instructor to use this rating sheet, he must not only know the rating, but he must learn the reasons for his success or failure.

1. INSTRUCTOR'S EXPLANATION OF THEORY, PROBLEMS, OR EQUIPMENT

Reasons: (Check as many as apply) ( ) clear; ( ) specific; ( ) pointed; ( ) involved; ( ) indirect; ( ) long; ( ) tedious; ( ) unnecessarily repetitious; ( ) can't see any other view than his own; ( ) inadequate; ( ) other—explain.

2. INSTRUCTOR'S ORGANIZATION OR ARRANGEMENT OF SUBJECT MATERIAL

Reasons: (Continue to check as many as apply in the remainder of this sheet) ( ) no apparent plan; ( ) easily sidetracked; ( ) goes too slowly at first and then rushes through the last part of the lesson; ( ) well organized; ( ) sticks to the assigned topic; ( ) shows how the lesson is connected with other lessons or courses; ( ) relies too closely on the textbook; ( ) considers the textbook the supreme authority; ( ) ignores the textbook; ( ) collateral material is not clearly connected to the main topic; ( ) so presented that it is impossible to make outline notes; ( ) other—explain.

The first two questions of the preceding questionnaire have been reprinted for the purpose of comparison with the following questionnaire. Although the contents of the first questionnaire and the following one are identical, it was discovered that the students and the faculty felt that the second format produced better results and more information. There is no scientific information available at this time to show why the second manner of presentation is superior to the first one. It is true that the checks in the columns gave a generally lower rating to the instructors than did the letter grades after the statements in the first form. It is also true that more reasons were checked in the second format than in the first.

After comparing the two check lists, the students were told that varying degrees of differences existed, and they were asked for their explanations. Approximately twenty-five per cent stated that they felt 'freer' with the graph-chart form; they did not feel as if they were grading the instructors on their work. The students seem to get a better concept of the cooperative nature of the study with the following format, and, consequently, they gave more reasons for their reactions.

The faculty seemed to support the same conclusions as did the students. In addition to the students' arguments, the faculty members felt that the results could be much more easily evaluated from the second format. Several instructors who had similar sections in the same subject stated that they believed the students' evaluation of the results to be more accurate. More students gave additional reasons for their answers and thus clarified the general picture.

However, there were no grave discrepancies and either form can be used with satisfactory results. If the instructor is going to make his own stencils for these rating sheets, it may be advisable to use the following format since that seems to bring forth the greatest amount of information.

Instructor Rating Sheet

To aid your instructor to understand your opinion of his teaching methods and thereby improve his teaching effectiveness, please fill out this rating sheet as honestly and fairly as you can. DO NOT SIGN YOUR NAME!

Please check not only your rating and the instructor on each item, but also check as many of the words as best express the reason for your rating. If you wish, add descriptive phrases of your own.

ITEM	RATING				REASON FOR SELECTED RATING (you may check more than one reason)
	Unsatisfactory	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent	
1. Instructor's explanation of theory, problems, or equipment					( ) clear; ( ) specific; ( ) pointed; ( ) involved; ( ) indirect; ( ) direct; ( ) long; ( ) tedious; ( ) unnecessarily repetitious; ( ) can't see any view other than his own; ( ) inadequate; ( ) other—explain
2. Instructor's organization or arrangement of subject material					( ) no apparent plan; ( ) easily sidetracked; ( ) goes too slowly at first and rushes thru last part of lesson; ( ) well organized; ( ) sticks to assigned topic; ( ) shows how lesson is connected with other lessons or courses; ( ) relies too closely on textbook; ( ) considers textbook supreme authority; ( ) ignores textbook; ( ) other—explain
3. Ability to keep you interested in subject					Please state reasons: (explain)
4. Evaluation of instructor's traits.					
A. Sense of humor					( ) sarcastic; ( ) overdone; ( ) forced; ( ) insufficient; ( ) childish; ( ) appropriate; ( ) subtle; ( ) other—explain
B. Attitude toward students					( ) friendly; ( ) antagonistic; ( ) indifferent; ( ) dictatorial; ( ) bored; ( ) cooperative; ( ) other—explain
C. Attitude toward class					( ) friendly; ( ) antagonistic; ( ) indifferent; ( ) dictatorial; ( ) bored; ( ) cooperative; ( ) other—explain

D. Attitude toward subject taught	( ) enthusiastic; ( ) stimulating; ( ) dull; ( ) full of vitality; ( ) lazy; ( ) inspiring; ( ) seems uninterested in subject; ( ) other—explain
E. Voice and diction	( ) indistinct; ( ) clear; ( ) too loud; ( ) too soft; ( ) harsh and grating; ( ) pleasant; ( ) other—explain
F. Emotional Stability	( ) easily irritated; ( ) unruffled; ( ) holds grudge; ( ) nervous; ( ) other—explain
G. Grooming (personal appearance)	( ) generally neat; ( ) generally untidy; ( ) extraordinarily well groomed; ( ) extraordinarily untidy; ( ) other—explain
H. Answering questions	( ) attempts to answer all questions satisfactorily; ( ) ( ) answers only questions directly pertaining to topic at hand; ( ) allows no questions asked during class; ( ) hedges when doesn't know answer; ( ) admits to not knowing answer to some questions asked; ( ) other—explain
I. Mannerisms	( ) poised at all times; ( ) has distracting body movements (enumerate); ( ) repeats favorite phrases or expressions (enumerate); ( ) other—explain
5. How would you rate examinations in this course?	( ) fair; ( ) tricky; ( ) too long; ( ) too short; ( ) ambiguously worded; ( ) stimulate thought; ( ) cover main points; ( ) simply require memorization; ( ) too many; ( ) too few; ( ) other—explain
6. How do you rate the instructor's helpfulness outside of class?	( ) very helpful; ( ) grudgingly helpful; ( ) hard to find; ( ) easy to talk to; ( ) lacks interest in students; ( ) liberal with information and advice; ( ) discourages such visits so that the student never seeks him out; ( ) other—explain

7. If teaching materials such as charts, films, slides, strip films, guest speakers, field trips, tape recorder, recordings, are used in this class, HOW DO YOU RATE INSTRUCTOR'S USE OF THESE TEACHING MATERIALS?	( ) instructor shows good judgment in selection; ( ) shows poor judgment in selection; ( ) uses them too often; ( ) materials are not worth time they take; ( ) they do not tie in with classroom work; ( ) mechanical difficulties too frequent; ( ) they do not aid in my learning; ( ) they help a great deal in learning; ( ) other—explain

ANSWER QUESTIONS 8 & 9 ONLY IF YOU HAVE THE INSTRUCTOR YOU ARE NOW RATING FOR LABORATORY

8. If this is a laboratory course, how well is the work connected with the corresponding theory course?	( ) no connection; ( ) too far ahead; ( ) too far behind; ( ) lab time used for other purposes; ( ) supplements theory course very well; ( ) other—explain
9. If this is a laboratory course, how do you rate instructor's organization and arrangement of lab period?	( ) always has equipment in good working order; ( ) lab equipment seldom in good working order; ( ) lab instructions clear and definite; ( ) lab instructions available on time; ( ) lab instructions inadequate & vague; ( ) instructions seldom ready on time; ( ) other—explain
10. Instructor's Class Discipline.	( ) Students pay little attention; ( ) instructor spends too much time in maintaining order; ( ) instructor ignores class attitude; ( ) constant disturbing factors which act as a hindrance to the learning process; ( ) instructor is too friendly with students so there is no discipline; ( ) other—explain
11. What part of this course did you like best? Why? What part of this course did you like least? Why?	
12. What is your collegiate scholastic average to date? Check point average that comes closest to your total average to date.	

POINT AVERAGE	
3.5—4.0 ( )	90%—95%
3.0—3.5 ( )	85%—90%
2.5—3.0 ( )	80%—85%
2.0—2.5 ( )	75%—80%
1.5—2.0 ( )	70%—75%
Below 1.5 ( )	below 69%

World Languages for the Junior College Student

V. J. GINGERICH

THE QUESTION, "Who should study a foreign language?" is one which arises at each registration time and frequently must be answered on the spot. Too often the answer turns out to be, in theory and in practice, "Only a gifted few."

The reason for this attitude is that there is a tendency to set up a minimum standard of achievement so that failure to meet the minimum within an allotted period of time means a failing grade in the course. Yet failure of this nature does not necessarily indicate that the student has learned nothing. That the amount learned is the maximum an individual is capable of absorbing during the given period of time is a fact too often overlooked by the instructor who, for one reason or another, insists on covering a set amount of material.

The situation is further complicated by the difficulty of determining in advance whether or not a student will be successful in his study of foreign language. While there are some aptitude tests in existence, no one has as yet devised an absolutely sure way of determining which students are capable of success. The fact is that interest is a far more certain basis on which the instructor can build than any score from a general intelligence, reading power, or other test. If language holds no fascination in and of itself for the student, better that he should avoid it. But what is most imporant is that if the interest is there the opportunity must be offered for the student to follow it, without undue penalties for failure to do what he cannot. As Professor Walter V. Kaulfers has put it in a recent article: "The opportunity to study world languages, literatures and cultures must be encouraged and kept open to all interested young people regardless of their ability to attain certain minimum standards of linguistic achievement."[1]

The junior college student himself seems to realize, without any undue prompting on the part of advocates of world language study, that "In addition to being a cultural necessity a knowledge of foreign languages is becoming more and more a vocational necessity."[2] Ask the language student why he has undertaken the study of a particular foreign tongue and the answer may range all the way from "required for a degree" to "will use in my work" or "broadens my background."

[1]Walter V. Kaulfers, "Languages for the Millions," *Modern Language Journal*, 6 (October, 1950), p. 450.

[2]*Foreign Languages for Secondary Schools*, Iowa Secondary School Cooperative Curriculum Program, Vol. XX, (Des Moines, Iowa, 1950), p. 8.

Confronted with such a span of aims among his students, the junior college instructor in a world language course is indeed hard put to develop a program conforming to an endless variety of tastes, abilities, and requirements, a program that will keep the brilliant student from becoming bored and afford at the same time a sense of accomplishment and progress to the less gifted.

It is not the purpose of these few remarks to explain how all this may be accomplished. Let each instructor judge for himself how best to carry out the program for his particular school and his particular class. However, a brief consideration of two possible aims of the world language course may afford some sense of orientation.

In a discussion of how the course in a world language can be designed to obtain the maximum benefit for the junior college student the first point to be considered is which of the three phases of language—reading, writing, or speaking—should be emphasized, or is some combination of these phases best for general use.

The oral-aural approach to language is by far the most stimulating to the majority of students. Furthermore, ability to speak and understand will benefit those who may use the language in their professions or businesses, such as singers, journalists, air hostesses, those employed in the export business, teachers of language and literature, and prospective employees of the State Department or other branches of government service dealing with foreign affairs. It is often difficult to determine just which students will have a practical use for the language, but certainly with the expansion of American business over the entire world and with air transportation facilitating long distance travel within short periods of time, foreign language for practical use will be one of the most important elements of the curriculum for the college student.

The question of international understanding is receiving an increasing amount of attention in educational circles, a fact that would scarcely need mentioning were it not for the language "barriers" in the places where American armed forces are stationed, particularly where they are in active combat. It must be reiterated that this basic problem in the college curriculum cannot be ignored, for the study of world languages is the very core of world understanding.

Even though the junior college student cannot attain a practical speaking knowledge of a language in the year or two at his disposal, there is at least time in the foreign language classroom for the development of a broader understanding of another culture through reading and discussion.

A course built primarily to teach reading of the language is well-suited to those people who will not need to speak it and has at the same time the advantage of

giving a valuable background for later training in speech. There is, of course, no reason why reading cannot be taught along with speaking, and, further, there is no reason why the emphases cannot be divided in a given class according to the interests and abilities of individual students.

Study in an original language from almost any point of view is a key to understanding the literature, history, politics, and government of a foreign country.

The two aims under discussion, then, are: (1) the attainment of a practical speaking knowledge of a world language along with aural comprehension, and (2) the broadening of general cultural and literary background, with emphasis on understanding the manner of living and thinking of the natives of another country.

For the first aim, the instructor must obviously be able to speak the language fluently. Mechanical devices can be of great assistance: records, films, and radio for listening; wire recorders for check on pronunciation; and recorders for reproduction of radio programs or the voices of local native speakers. It must be remembered that these instruments are never a substitute for a good teacher. The instructor need not necessarily be a native of the foreign country, but he should have spent enough time there to become thoroughly familiar with the everyday language of average use.

In a reading course, stories, novels, plays, and articles form the basis for discussion of foreign customs and ways of living, and the instructor becomes a salesman of international good will through understanding of another cultural group.

In the selection of reading materials, great care must be taken to see that stories and articles are of interest to people of college age. There is at present, in most languages, an abundance of mature texts available that are written in a style simple enough to be understood by the beginning student.

In all cases, a reading list in English should be provided, especially in the beginning stages. A few good articles and a lecture or two by the instructor about his travels in the foreign country will do a great deal toward motivating study of the language itself.

Thus, a foreign language course based on practical knowledge of the language, properly enriched with readings and discussions of geography and customs, can be an important part of the education of either the terminal student in junior college or the degree candidate who is pursuing the course because it is required in the liberal arts program or because he needs it in his profession. The course in a world language must be geared to the actual needs of the student.

The G.E.D. and the Social Studies

HYMEN M. CHAUSOW

A CONTINUING problem confronting the public junior colleges is what can be done to facilitate teaching of a social science general course to students of diverse abilities and backgrounds.

Junior college leaders recognize that prior knowledge or prediction of students' ability to handle material could facilitate the advising of students as to desirable curriculum experience and methods of study. Furthermore, with such prior knowledge the instructor could determine procedures for teaching students with diverse abilities so that each young person could get the greatest possible benefit out of the materials presented.

This study has two stages:

1. To inquire whether there is any relationship between the General Education Development Test of the American Council on Education[1] and student achievement in the social science general course, and
2. To report the results of an experimental class dealing with predicted failures and dropouts on the basis of the G.E.D. tests.

National trends indicate increasing popularity of the social science general course. This is evidenced in a study made in 1941 and repeated again in 1946 which showed an increase from 7.5 per cent to 29.5 per cent of the junior colleges throughout the country offering junior college social science general courses.[2]

The present study includes the results of 1,490 students in the social science general course of the Wright branch of Chicago City Junior college who had taken the G.E.D. test in the first week of the fall semester 1947-48.

Certain pertinent questions arose after the tests were scored. Specifically, what is the correlation between the General Education Development Test on social studies material and the semester final grades in the first semester of the social science general course? What use can be made of the results in aiding the students and the instructor? What is the possible use of the G.E.D. as an exemption test? What is the correlation between poor grades and students dropping out of the public junior colleges? What is the sex ratio of student dropouts?

In order to ascertain what utilization of results was possible after the correlation was computed, the "A" and "F" students were analyzed in more detail to see if any specific problems presented themselves with possibilities of solutions.

Relation between G.E.D. and Social Science

In analyzing the comparisons between the G.E.D. test and the Social Science 101 grades, the fol-

[1] Material dealing with social studies.

[2] H. Chausow, Unpublished paper. *Trends in Social Science General Courses in Junior Colleges.* University of Chicago, 1946.

lowing method was used to achieve the results.

A frequency distribution of the standard scores of the G.E.D. scores and the total point values in Social Science 101 was made to determine comparable grade limits. The results in point value follow.[3]

Table I

COMPARABLE SCORES BETWEEN G.E.D. AND FINAL GRADES IN SOCIAL SCIENCE 101

	G.E.D. (Standard scores)	SOCIAL SCIENCE 101 (Total point value)
"A"	66-75	263 or higher
"B"	58-65	228-262
"C"	48-57	178-227
"D"	42-47	138-177
"F"	41 or under	137 or under

In correlating the social science 101 grades with G.E.D. Test grades a positive correlation of .65 was found.

Dropouts

A study was then made of those students who had left school before completion of the semester's work, including a breakdown into sex and grade factors.

Of 1,490 students, 165 (11 per cent) left before completing the first semester. Of the total 917 male students, 117 (13 per cent) and 43 (7 per cent) of the 580 female students failed to complete the semester, revealing a two-to-one ratio of male over female dropouts. The effect of grades on dropouts is shown in the following table.

Table II

RELATION BETWEEN GRADES AND DROPOUTS

Grade Received on G.E.D.	Total Number Beginning of First Semester, 1947-48	Total Number Leaving School During First Semester, 1947-48	Per Cent School Leavers of Number Who Entered
"F"	67	23	34
"D"	300	26	9
"C"	671	81	12
"B"	300	27	9
"A"	152	8	5
Total	1490	165	11

Thus, 34 per cent of the "F" students and only five per cent of the "A" students dropped out before completion of the course. These figures suggest the importance of grades in the dropout situation.

[3]Total point value in Social Science derived by adding the point values of three examinations.

Analysis of "A" and "F" Students

A more detailed study was made of all the "A" and "F" students among the 1,490 who had taken the G.E.D. test. This further breakdown of the "A" students was made to ascertain whether a possible level of exemption from the general course could be set. Study of the "F" students was undertaken to discover how accurately the G.E.D. predicted their failure in the general course and to determine whether something could be done in the future if this prior information were available.

Of 152 G.E.D. "A" students, 139 received these grades in Social Science 101: 73 (52 per cent) received "A", 51 (36.5 per cent) received "B", 14 (10 per cent) received "C", and 1 (.7 per cent) received "D".

Of the other students, eight left, three received "R" or no grade, and two took the comprehensive examination instead. Almost ninety per cent, then, received a grade of "B" or better, and no one received an "F" grade. A study of the table showing the relationship of the standard score on the G.E.D. with the total point value in Social Science 101 suggests that a standard score of seventy on the G.E.D. test would be a good exemption level.

Table III

RELATION BETWEEN "A" STUDENTS ON G.E.D. AND ACTUAL ACHIEVEMENT IN SOCIAL SCIENCE 101

G.E.D. Standard Scores	Social Science Grades			
	D 138-177	C 178-227	B 228-262	A 263+
75	0	0	0	1
74	0	0	0	1
73	0	0	2	5
72	0	0	2	5
71	0	0	0	4
"A"	EXEMPTION POINT			
70	0	1	9	19
69	0	2	4	5
68	0	4	14	19
67	1	5	12	7
66	0	2	8	7
TOTAL	1	14	51	73

Of sixty-seven G.E.D. "F" students in Social Science 101, 13 (20 per cent) received "F", 16 (24 per cent) received "D", 14 (21 per cent) received "C", 1 (1 per cent) received "B", 23 (34 per cent) left. Since only one student received a grade higher than

"C" evidently much could be done to help these students.

This study indicates a positive correlation between the General Education Development Test and the final grade in the first semester of the Social Science general course.

In interpreting the data, this correlation is actually higher, for two of the groups used in the correlation, the high "A" group and the high "F" group on the G.E.D., were instrumental in keeping the correlation down. It is possible that the "A" students did not have the necessary stimulation or motivation to do the most according to their abilities. Although most of them received "A's" in the 101 general course, their total point values were not as high as the G.E.D. warranted and personal interviews seemed to bear out. In analyzing the effect of the high "F" students on the correlation, many factors may have been involved, such as insufficient number of students involved, high level of instruction, and other unknown factors.

The additional detailed study of "A" and "F" students showed that the G.E.D. test can be used in future classes in the general course. The knowledge derived from the G.E.D. test can be used to facilitate advising students as to desirable curriculum experiences.

To gain maximum utilization of the social sciences, the faculty members have at least two possible means of improvement. They may allow the students who score high on the G.E.D. pre-test to substitute other specialized courses (economics, political science, and sociology) in place of the social science general course, or they may substantially enrich the existing general course for the superior student by more outside readings, special research papers and projects.

As to those students who did not do well on the G.E.D. test, their results in social science are caused by many factors. Therefore, instructors utilizing the result of this test through whatever methods at their command might well have before them the list of students who require special attention.

Possibly by provision for smaller classes for such students, arrangements for seating in the front of the room, closer inspection of their work by the teacher, individual conferences and suggestions for self-help, additional exercises, reading aids and reading clinics, attempts can be made to raise the level of student understanding in social science.

Many of the recommendations above were tested in the experimental phase of this report and the results were enlightening.

Experimental Phase

High rates of student failures and dropouts in public junior colleges do not merely endanger the stability of a particular school, but they interfere seriously with the achievement of general education objectives. Despite the gravity of this recognized problem, however, there have been few rigorous

studies of its extent, and fewer still on possible ways of minimizing it.

As a result of the preceding study of the General Education Development Test in relation to the final grades in the Social Science general course, three basic recommendations were made for its use:

1. to determine the selection of "failing" students beforehand and to aid them in some manner;
2. to determine a method for the selection of "superior" students and to allow them to take advanced work or to provide an enriched survey for them;
3. to determine the class background in the social studies so that the best techniques can be used to achieve the basic objectives.

This experimental phase deals with the application of the first recommendation above to an actual classroom situation.

Selection of Sample

Administratively, the G.E.D. test could not be given to the entire freshman class to determine the "failing" students, nor could the facilities for establishing a series of special classes be obtained. The social science department decided to set up an experimental class of about twenty students and to compare their results with those of a similar group who would be allowed to go along as they had in the past.

In order to obtain enough volunteer students for the experiment, it was decided to start with about one hundred students chosen from the lowest percentiles on the A.C.E. Psychological test. Of these one hundred students, sixty came to take the G.E.D. test, and forty-three received a failing grade.

The forty-three students were asked to fill out their program schedules, and in order to get a random sample, the time of the experimental class was arbitrarily set for 2:00 p.m. on Thursday. Seventeen students were able to attend at this time, and to this number ten additional regular students were added to assure the class would not be closed. The other twenty-six failing students were allowed to attend their regular discussion period. The experimental class utilized only the weekly discussion period that follows the twice-a-week lectures in the large auditorium. However, these arrangements were completed after the course had begun, so that the first few weeks of work were lost.

Two other instructors participated in this experiment and gave as much time as the students required.

Analysis of Results

After a semester of work in which the instructors gave individual attention[4] to those of the special students who voluntarily desired it, the following results were noted:

[4]Individual student-teacher conferences were conducted in which lecture notes were checked to see if the students had the key ideas. An examination was made of their workbooks to see if they were filled out with the correct answers, and the students were questioned to see if they understood what they had written.

Table IV

G.E.D. "F" STUDENTS

Social Science Grade	In Special Class	In Regular Class
A	0	0
B	1	0
C	7	1
D	7	13
F	2	7
Left	0	5
TOTAL	17	26
Mean	157	134

Since this was a small sample of pre-test possible failures, it was decided to check the difference of the means to see if it were significant or merely due to chance. By working out the "t" test[5], it was found that the difference in the means could not be considered as significant.

Though this result was unsatisfactory as far as the application of the results to generalization, it was significant for this particular class—only two students failed and none left or dropped out of school. In the previous section, it was shown that thirty-four per cent of the failing students dropped from the course.

A further analysis and check with the other faculty members working with the special class revealed some interesting facts. Of the seventeen special students only ten had utilized the individual instruction that was available to them. In Table V are shown the results of dividing the class into those who had individual attention and those who did not.

[5]Method of checking significance of the difference in the means of small samples.

Table V

COMPARISON OF RESULTS OF G.E.D. FAILING STUDENTS

Social Science Grade	Individual Attention	No Individual Attention	Pre-Test Student-at-Large
A	0	0	0
B	1	0	0
C	7	0	1
D	2	5	13
F	0	2	7
Left	0	0	5
Mean	175	132	134

The "t" score check showed that the new difference of the means was significant at the twenty-five per cent level. Although this was not conclusive proof, it is a suggestion of what can be done. The fact that the experiment was started late and improvised as it went along has led to the belief that the results would have been much more significant had there been more thought given to the organizational techniques.

It is interesting to note that those in the special class who did not avail themselves of the opportunity for individual attention came very close to the results achieved by the students who had taken the pre-test and were distributed at large throughout the classes. That has led to the conclusion that special classes are not the solution to the problem without changing the organizational pattern of the course.

Recommendations and Conclusions

The specific recommendations that evolve from this research are:

1. That a pre-test of an improved version of the G.E.D. test be given to all students beginning the social science general course. For future use, the pre-test could be made more effective by making the test material correspond more closely to the social science material which is being taught.

2. That the resultant data be used in determining which students could be classified as "superior" and need more motivation to challenge their capabilities and also in determining which students are likely to be failures and dropouts and need more special attention for successful completion of the course.

From the comparison of the G.E.D. test results with the final grades in the general course, any teacher can help to ascertain the value of his instruction. Furthermore, by comparing future results the teacher can determine the increasing value of his instruction from year to year.

3. That further studies along this line be made in other junior colleges throughout the country to achieve a higher reliability and validity of results as indicated by this study.

In conclusion, although a positive correlation of only .65 was found between the G.E.D. and the final social science grades, a further analysis provided invaluable aid in meeting the problems facing instructors in the social science course.

The plan at Wright Junior College is to continue the experimental phase of this study during the 1951-52 school year and to test further the findings in this study.

Scholarships in the Community College

STEPHEN E. EPLER

THERE are a number of opinions held in regard to scholarships. At one extreme is what might be called the "West Point Plan." This would provide for paying all the expenses, including cash allowances, for all students selected to enter the community college. Obviously the costs would make this plan an impossible one for most community colleges.

The opposite extreme might be called the "Exclusive Girls' School Plan." Those accepting this position would say the community college has no responsibility to give financial aid to students. The result would be that few students, other than those of wealthy parents, would be able to attend college. Few, if any, in the community college movement would take this position.

Community colleges can use a "Middle-Way Plan" to give assistance to students of ability through grants, loans, and work opportunities. The problem of most community colleges is to provide the most service with the limited scholarship funds available. Too often grants are made as prizes to contest winners and top ranking high school graduates whose parents may easily afford to pay all their college costs. Scholarship funds will serve youth better if reserved for those who can not be in college without financial aid. Let the title and honor go to the first-place student but keep going down the list until someone is found who needs the prize money.

The whole idea of the community college can be considered a scholarship as its purpose is to reduce the cost of higher education to those attending. The fact that a community college is located in the population center of a region so that many students can live at home and attend is in itself a scholarship worth several hundred dollars for each student. Likewise, the reduction or elimination of tuition and fees by a community college provides a scholarship for every student enrolled. A large proportion of all scholarships given by colleges and universities is so small that the recipients must still pay tuition at a rate above that of many community colleges. Students would appreciate their opportunities more if they realized that the difference between the low tuition they pay and the $500 or more tuition that comparable education would cost them in many private colleges is in effect a scholarship given them by the taxpayers and other supporters of the community college.

Another type of scholarship as to source of aid may be called "The Federal Plan." Federal aid may go to an institution or directly to the student. Large amounts have been given to the land grant colleges and lesser amounts to some

community colleges for aid in specific vocational programs. In the school year 1948-49, the average scholarship paid to a veteran under the G. I. Bill was almost $1,400. Most of this was paid to the veteran directly for subsistence, but a large amount was paid to his college for tuition and books.

Many persons favor federal scholarships similar to those provided by the G. I. Bill for those who have served in the armed forces during the Korean conflict. Others urge federal legislation to grant scholarships to students on the basis of economic need and academic ability. Mr. Quattlebaum in his report[1] lists more than forty bills and resolutions pertaining to federal scholarships and aid to students that were introduced in the Eighty-First Congress between January 3, 1949, and April 30, 1950.

State scholarships are provided in most states, and these take a variety of forms. In one state, each member of the legislature may award one scholarship annually to a student to attend the state university. In another state, each legislator may award scholarships annually to a total value of $1,200. The laws of another state permit each high school principal to award from one to four scholarships good at any of the state-supported colleges. Another state allows state-supported institutions of higher learning to give tuition scholarships which will not exceed five per cent of college enrollment to a number of students. A number of states give scholarships to students preparing to become teachers.[2]

Some of the purposes for which scholarships can be used are:

1. To enable needy students to begin or continue college.
2. To encourage students of ability, specific or general, to attend college.
3. To serve as a prize or award to contest winners.
4. To encourage more students of ability to enter a given field, such as the teaching profession.

In the writer's opinion the first two should receive prime consideration.

Most community colleges could provide more work opportunities to needy students. Many colleges are hiring full-time employees to do some of the maintenance and dining hall and office work that could be done equally well by students. At very little expense, the college can help many students by improving its placement services for those wishing to work part time.

Loan funds have advantages over outright grants when limited funds are available because the repayment of loans, especially short-term loans, enables the same money to be used by many students. Too often loan funds have cumbersome restrictions as to security, such as high interest rates which make it more difficult to borrow than to

[1]Federal Scholarships and Fellowship Programs, Committee on Education and Labor, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, 1950.

[2]See "Scholarships and Fellowships," Bulletin 1951, No. 16. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C.

go directly to commercial loan agencies. Loans that the needy student can readily secure through his advisor or dean should be encouraged.

The community college has a responsibility to open its doors by means of scholarships to youth of outstanding ability who lack the economic means to attend college. With limited funds and jobs to assist students, the college must decide whether to help a few outstanding individuals with generous grants or to extend aid in lesser amounts to greater numbers. In some instances an estimate of a student's potential may be wrong, and the unnoticed student who does high quality, but not the best work, may in later years prove to be the original thinker and productive scholar. The best students should always receive needed aid, and as many of the other good students as possible should be helped.

The community college attempts to make its services available to all those in the community who have the ability to profit from it. Scholarships, whether in the form of direct grants, work opportunities, loans, or reduced costs, should be used by the community college to extend its services to worthy persons.

Work Experience Programs in Junior College

W. J. CRANE

THE junior college can make use of the work experience program if it wishes to vitalize its terminal training. Work experience can serve to stabilize interest in an occupation or an occupational field, to give students a continuing contact with adults on the job, to furnish the college with a more inexpensive laboratory for job training, and to give employers a large part in the training of possible employees in a well supervised and coordinated program.

Definition of Work Experience. Clifford E. Erickson has offered this definition of work experience:

> It is a means and method in the program of the schools by which the learner actually produces useful goods or renders useful services through participation in socially desirable work activities in the community under real conditions.[1]

This is one aspect of the program; there is another—related training. No work experience program should consist of work alone. One of the main problems in vocational education is the correlation of related training and work. Not only is it difficult to handle administrative problems of cooperation between the school and the place of employment, but also there are differences of opinion among educators as to the type of related training and the values to be derived from it. One writer says, "While the vocational values latent in academic subjects have been ignored, the vocational values of shop courses in the general education programs have been greatly overemphasized."[2] He goes on to state that the schools cannot train for industry except in the realm of personality development, social processes, standards of conduct, placement methods, and through the use of continual research.

Another writer suggests three types of training:

1. exercise—a piece of instructional or training work where the principal object is to give skill and practice in the application of technical knowledge, but where the value of the products is in no way considered
2. pseudo job—the job is carried out under the most essential conditions, but where the finished job is of no value and is later destroyed
3. real, or productive job—the product is secured under all essential conditions that would surround the worker in the actual practice of the trade.[3]

Realistic work experience should fall into the latter category. It should be a real situation if it is

[1]Clifford E. Erickson, *A Basic Text for Guidance Workers* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947) p. 355.

[2]Walter H. Magill, *Administering Vocational Education* (Minneapolis: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1943), p. 6.

[3]Charles A. Prosser and Thomas Quigley, *Vocational Education in a Democracy* (Chicago: American Technical Society, 1949), pp. 159-60.

to fulfill the requirements of experiential psychology. In order to have the most meaning for the individual, the experience should take place under conditions approximating those of real life experience.

The implications of the above statement for the school are clear. Vocational training in the school alone is not sufficient for the full development of the individual. Actual job experience should be provided to enlarge upon the training in the school and to give broader growth to the student. In this respect, it might be useful to refer to a device termed "Richard's formula." This is not a strictly mathematical formula, but a thinking device: the amount of employment success (E) is proportional to the amount of manual skill (M) plus the amount of technical knowledge (T) plus the amount of intelligence (I). A further expansion of the formula is made with the addition of M indicating the motivation or personality of the worker.

Until recently schools have been concerned with the manual skills and technical knowledge of students. Intelligence has been a minor factor and has usually been considered in its negative relationship to vocational training. The more intelligent students have not appeared in vocational courses. After they have been isolated in the college-preparatory courses, those students remaining unassigned were placed in the industrial courses. Personality is of even less importance in occupational training. It has been assumed by many educators and guidance workers that if a person were trained in a job and found the work to his liking, his personal adjustment was automatic. Recent studies have indicated that the process is not as certain as it has seemed. Definite steps have to be taken to bring about the adjustment.

Problems of Administration. The problem of selection or admission is a major one. A problem of admission to work experience that appears in the high school and not in the junior college is that of work permits. In most states the minimum age for work is fourteen years. Since junior college students have usually passed this age, it will present no problem in the majority of cases. If, however, the state regulations set the age higher than fourteen years, it is possible to obtain a permit from the United States Department of Labor, Wages and Hours Division, when it is to be used as part of the educational program.

A second problem is that of voluntary participation. In most cases, it is well to make the program completely voluntary. This maintains the strength of motivation and interest. However, it might be an advantage to have compulsory work experience in a program in the same way that class work is compulsory in the apprenticeship program.

A third point in admission is that no student should be allowed

to participate in work plans until he has some proven skill or knowledge. This would tend to eliminate the exploratory function of work experience. There has been a great deal of criticism of the exploratory idea. It has been said that it adds confusion to the program by requiring relatively rapid transfer of the student from one job to another. It is also believed to hinder the cooperation between the employer and the college, a factor which seems to be tenuous enough without further complication.

A fourth problem in the selection of students is the determination of their needs, interests, problems, and future plans. Much of the guidance program has been given over to these factors, but there is still no positive single instrument that can be relied upon. Psychometric and counseling methods seem to be indicated, but many schools do not have these facilities available. Perhaps the most effective method of determining needs, interests, problems, and abilities is by actual practice and training, but few schools have the facilities or staff needed. Certainly the junior college, with its limited time and frequently limited funds, cannot use training as a tool in selection.

A fifth problem has been implied before. It seems obvious that intelligence plays a great part in occupational success, yet too often students of average or less than average mental ability are seen as fit candidates for vocational training. If total economy is to operate at its highest efficiency, it would seem necessary that there be workers of all ranges of intelligence. There is no valid reason for drawing off the most intelligent into the already overcrowded professions. An intelligent carpenter performs as socially useful a role as does an intelligent lawyer. It is true that the instruments for determining intelligence are relatively crude, but they do point out that "something" which is now called intelligence and so could be used even in vocational training.

Work Program Organization. The details of cooperative work programs will vary with the facilities of the school, the resources of the community, and administrative policy. There are two forms of work programs to choose from—work experience and work-study programs. A plan was originated at Blackburn College, Carlinville, Illinois, in 1913, the original purpose of which was to furnish self-help to needy students.[4] In recent publications the vocational values are being stressed. Under this plan the student devotes fifteen hours per week to campus projects. The work includes clerical service, library and laboratory work, preparation and serving of food, maintenance of buildings and grounds, and general repair. In many instances, students work with men in the licensed trades in campus construction. No pay is granted for this work, but reductions in tuition are made and with the

[4]Blackburn College Bulletin, 1949.

service of students, Blackburn is able to keep its costs at a minimum.

A question of value must be mentioned here. There is no doubt as to the value to the school in a material way, but there is doubt as to the value to the student. It is true that through this plan at least some students are able to attend college who might not otherwise do so. But, is there any personal value to such a program? Certainly the value is not specifically vocational. The skills or techniques learned on these jobs will not carry over to the student's occupation. If he plans to be a carpenter or a cook, he would probably not enroll at Blackburn. It would seem logical that most students have professional, semi-professional, or technical objectives, and the work at the college would not afford that kind of experience. There would be benefits in the way of experience in cooperation and progress toward maturity. It is a question of whether the school or the student benefits most.

Cooperative work plans may be divided into five groups. The diversified occupations plan is one of the best known. In addition, there are the half-day, quarter, semester, and alternating-block plans. The latter plan has been used by the Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, New York. Here there are alternating four-week periods of classes during the school year. Two students are assigned to each job to maintain job continuity, and one student is expected to be available for vacation work.

Most of the junior colleges seem to prefer the half-day plan. The feeling is that this plan facilitates supervision and counseling. The quarter and semester plans place the student on a job for a quarter or a semester, depending upon the administrative division of the school, and in school for a quarter or a semester. In the cooperative plans so far described, the students are trained in a cluster of jobs or in a sequence of jobs. This means that correlation of the work with the school program is vital. It is at the same time difficult. The program of related training must be flexible and patterned after a particular cluster or sequence of jobs. Constant supervision is necessary so that the times go together—work and study should be on the same subject at the same time.

Reports from students are required by over half of the junior colleges having work programs. These reports include the various experiences of the students and their successes and difficulties. Reports from the employing organizations are usually required because of their use in coordination of the program. The reports may be made once or twice a year or oftener. Caution must be taken that paper work for the employer is kept at a minimum. This does not imply that no such consideration be given the instructor or the student.

Coordination classes are conducted to relate the problems of the job with the studies. The number of hours for such classes will depend upon the needs of the students and the facilities of the school. These classes can be conducted by the coordinator or an instructor. The coordinator is the nominal head of the work program and, if possible, should be a full-time worker. His duties are to coordinate the work and study programs, to supervise the students individually or with the aid of an instructor, to correlate training and guidance, and to be accountable for the success of the program. One of his main duties is to hold conferences with employers to determine their needs and to find ways in which the employers will fit into the planned program of the school. It should also be part of his job to follow-up the learners.

The diversified occupations program is devised essentially for use in small schools. Meridian Junior College, Meridian, Mississippi, has been an example. All students interested in one specific occupation or group of occupations are gathered together in a group. An effort is made to relate their work experience to their studies. Each group meets in a separate class for their related training, and in this way the necessity for a separate curriculum for each occupation is eliminated.

The primary problems are the community contacts and related instruction. In small communities, it is not an easy matter to find suitable work experience opportunities. Since the employing organizations are usually small, they cannot release machines and facilities to a training program. The related instruction is difficult to fit to small groups of students. The facilities of a small school do not allow for such individualized intruction to any great extent and yet, because of the scarcity of jobs, the breakdown has to be varied.

With regard to methods of instruction, it has been suggested that a project plan would be advisable. This would mean that a center of effort would be found so as to fit the job and the related training compactly. It would give added meaning to both.

In all work plans, contracts are frequently required in about the same manner as for apprenticeships. This is done to insure continuity of training for the student and continuity of production for the employer. The student is required to sign a contract stating that he will follow a stated program for a certain length of time. The employer also agrees to maintain the job for the stated length of time and, in many cases, he agrees to rotate training jobs so that the charge of exploitation may not arise. This has been one major objection to work programs. It has been feared that the student would be kept at one specific operation for the full time and would not receive the broader experience

necessary to his vocational growth.

In a study made by the writer, it was found that 57 junior colleges from a group of 248 reported existing work programs in 1949-50. Nearly half of the programs were reported from colleges having an enrollment of from 250 to 499 students.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Work Programs. A primary disadvantage of cooperative training is the difficulty of training for production jobs. Critics of the plan say that such training is not efficient because of the constantly changing demands of industry. They say that such training would better be left to industry. This idea has weight. In the first place, production jobs do not usually require a long training period—perhaps only a few weeks or months. Secondly, few schools can afford the production machines necessary in training. In the third place, constant retooling of machines is impossible in the schools because of the cost involved.

Another disadvantage has been mentioned—the possible exploitation of the student by the employer. This fault requires a contract system and continual inspection and supervision by a coordinator or his representative.

A third disadvantage is the poor correlation often existing between the job and related and technical training.

Fourth, the individual attention necessary may require greater outlays of money and greater use of the staff than is possible in a small school.

Fifth, problems of admission and selection cannot be settled effectively by a small school with limited facilities and personnel.

There is a surprising amount of agreement as to the advantages of work experience:

1. Work experience insures real vocational experience for the student.
2. It reduces the expense of vocational education.
3. It increases the diversification of school offerings.
4. It provides tryout, or exploratory experience, if it is so desired.
5. It aids in the placement of students.
6. It keeps the school program current.
7. It motivates students to learn.
8. Results show more effective maturation of students.

Work experience combines the best methods of work activity and group instruction. It is concerned with the personality and welfare of the individual. It draws its subject matter from reality and affords an opportunity to learn a job. If these points are understood and applied, work experience can be a part of vocational education at any level.

The Internship Program at Endicott Junior College

JANE A. BLOSSOM

THIS week I took pictures at a big convention in Atlantic City and they were printed," wrote one enthusiastic photography student apprenticing with a New Jersey newspaper. "I'm reaching from the bottom of the ladder," remarked an art major spending four weeks with a commercial display company in Holyoke, Massachusetts, "but I'm learning techniques of silk screen printing and have been experimenting with a new process of photographic screen printing. It makes me realize the importance of a background to obtain any type of a position in the art world." Two young women, working as volunteers in the occupational therapy ward of a psychopathic hospital, discovered, "These are people with the same interests we have, hospitalized not for broken arms or legs, but for sick minds."

This procedure to think things through while working at their chosen vocation is the essence of the Endicott Internship for the three hundred career-minded women studying at Endicott Junior College in Beverly, Massachusetts. The Internship program constitutes an annual four-week off-campus work period which is in addition to the regular full academic year, when each student explores her major field through apprentice work in a business or profession. She not only seeks, applies for, and gets her own job (with "leads" from the Endicott Personnel Office), but the student's weekly reports indicate that she profits as much from this extra-curricular experience as from a semester course.

"I used my knowledge of textiles every day because many customers inquired about our dress materials," stated one merchandising major who interned in a department store. A senior in advertising who worked last year on her hometown newspaper has had copywriting accepted at a New York agency; and a freshman majoring in pre-nursery school training "applied everything I'd ever learned and then some" when she substituted for a teacher and found herself in full charge of forty-two pre-kindergarten boys and girls during her first week as an internee.

Aspiring journalists particularly relish the magic hours of experience. These months of training during the college years mean much more than a nodding acquaintance with the field and business procedures. One journalism major has been working for her hometown weekly since high school graduation as cub reporter, general re-

write man, and on vacation occasions, society editor. In the publication field, a photography student has been photographing skin tone for magazine cuts and writing small squibs for a commercial agency. Secretarial majors cover a range of jobs in business and professional offices from the typist for a New York public relations firm and stenographer in an airlines company to medical secretaries and the bookkeeper in her father's wholesale business.

Part of the experience is in fruitfully exploring the field, talking to regular employees about their jobs, to employers about job qualifications and opportunities. Perhaps remembering their stint as interns, business men are particularly generous with their time and advice for the young apprentice workers and make every effort to supply them with a variety of tasks. A foods major from Larchmont, New York, saw the tearoom business from two points of view—working first with the caterer and then with the manager of a Pennsylvania College tearoom. Four radio majors, volunteer observers in a New York City network station, progressed through the music, program, and publicity departments. Another student who is combining the merchandising and secretarial major interned as a freshman in a Boston department store and, as a senior, interned in a local trust company. Interested in merchandising, but equally happy using her stenographic skills, she feels "her" job will be as a secretary to a buyer.

Internships have proved an invaluable factor for accurate guidance. An estimated five per cent of the freshmen change their majors as a result of "trying the field"; another group, from three to five per cent, revise their two year schedule with guidance directors to include subject matter which has been suggested by an employer for a particular student. A confidential report of work and attitude submitted to the College by each employer is a touchstone in further career decisions for both the student and her counselor.

Almost every student gains a sense of values from her responsibilities, associations, and experiences and returns to classes with renewed vigor and purpose. Telling are student comments which read, "You have to learn to get along with all kinds of people in the business world"; "Precision and accuracy are keywords here"; and "I love my work because I feel I am really helping."

After two years interning with nursery school children, a capable senior has found that "love conquers the impossible." Another student has widened her social outlook in teaching typing and an exercise class in the state reformatory for women. Best of all was the plan for improvement expressed by a freshman merchandising student from Bangkok, Siam, "Each day I tried to find the better way to satisfy more people."

Vocations Day - An Effective Group Counseling Device

BILL J. PRIEST

TEACHERS, counselors, and administrators in the junior college field are all painfully aware of the fact that a sizable percentage of active junior college students have not yet selected a vocation. In a community college, where terminal education is given the major emphasis, this situation poses serious problems. In view of the fact that four semesters of training are barely adequate in many of the technical curriculums now offered at the junior college level, this indecision on the part of incoming freshmen is creating many five- and six-semester students. While this extra semester, or year, of exploration and orientation is sometimes desirable, most junior colleges strive to align students with vocational goals as early as possible. To attain this objective, counseling programs of various scopes have been established.

It is the purpose of this article to elaborate somewhat on a single device known to have merit as a part of a college group counseling program. To afford convenient reference, this device is labelled Vocations Day.

Vocations Day is a day, or portion thereof, during which eminently successful representatives of various vocations are invited to come on campus and meet with the young men and women who are preparing to enter, or who entertain an interest in, the field of the representative. The chief justification for a "Day" is an assumption that junior college students are likely to profit by having direct contact with experts in their chosen fields. For the student, preprofessional as well as terminal, who has a target clearly in his sights, this is a day of re-evaluation and either confirmation or rejection of the wisdom of his choice. Vocations Day offers the "shopper-type" student a chance to pick a vocation or two in which he has at least a casual interest and check up on the career possibilities as they are likely to apply to him. The extent of the contribution which Vocations Day makes is largely determined by the calibre and talents of the imported experts. Needless to say, the mechanics of Vocations Day must be such as to provide a suitable environment for the students to realize a maximum from the potential of the lay participants.

In organizing a Vocations Day for a school of many hundreds of students, there are several important factors which must be considered. One very vital consideration is the matter of coverage—what vocational choices dominate? Since it is certain that all of the 40,023 jobs listed in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* cannot be

covered, it is advisable to create some sort of precedence list with a group of "musts," followed by those that are desirable but not essential. A list of students' vocational objectives may be compiled by going through a sample of the total number of students' counseling folders, or, if that is too cumbersome, a meeting attended by all counselors will produce an estimate on students' vocational choices. Still another way of procuring this information is to conduct an actual student survey through the use of a check list. This has the advantage of making the project a cooperative one in which students share directly in the planning. The chief disadvantage is the lack of realism among students as evidenced by a heavy demand for glamorous vocations (i. e. professional football, movie actor) which frequently offer little or no opportunity for employment. However, hearing from the lips of one who knows the particular field may do a great deal for the student, in that it may make apparent to him the lack of wisdom in his current vocational goal. Obviously the ichthyologists and roentgenologists and a number of others are not provided for, but most of them have a way station before they can become the narrow specialists they hope to be, so the deficiency is more imaginary than real.

The next consideration is the matter of the availability of able participants. Vocations Day is apt to be a dull and fruitless affair unless the cooperation of superior participants is obtained. To assure ample time for planning, a calendar should be set up covering a period of not less than the six weeks preceding Vocations Day.

It is imperative that the collective wisdom of the organizing committee be used in determining which individuals will be selected as representatives of the various vocations to be covered. Ideally, panel members should have the knowledge, the reputation, and the ability to express themselves, if effective coverage is to be achieved. The procedure recommended later in this report is quite capable of producing a negative result if the panel participants are mediocre or inferior. Since there are certain to be many refusals and some cancellations, two individuals should be listed for each vocation. If the lay participants are to be solicited through written invitations, it is strongly recommended that self-addressed cards be included in the original letter with the stipulation that the response be returned not later than a fixed date. To reduce further the possibility of errors and misunderstandings, it is suggested that reminder cards be sent to all participants approximately four days before the event.

Another vital step in organizing Vocations Day is the readiness which one must develop in students, teachers, and administration. If a preceding Vocations Day were a success, the problem is less com-

plex; however, if it is a first venture, or if the preceding one were coolly received, considerable time and thought should be devoted to creating a receptive attitude toward this group counseling device. Among the avenues available for popularizing of Vocations Day are the school paper, the community paper, school display windows, public speaking and composition classes, posters, and daily announcements. Working with a faculty committee during the planning stages is heartily recommended. It is only reasonable to assume that a group of four or five will have more resources than a single individual in such matters as acqaintanceship with community leaders, knowledge of student needs, and determination of appropriate sections. Also, when under committee control, Vocations Day is less apt to be regarded as an administrative imposition which deprives instructors of time normally allocated to regular class sessions.

As to the actual mechanics of a Vocations Day, it is believed that local conditions may determine what is best for any given area. Any scheme which exploits the knowledge and experience of the experts to the betterment of the students is consistent with the primary objective. It is the opinion of the author, reinforced by that of several other administrators who are using or have used this device, that staging Vocations Day is an evolutionary process and should be revised each year. Every effort should be made to correct the mistakes of the previous year. In addition, changed conditions and needs must be carefully identified and appropriate adjustment made.

Without recommendation that it be followed to the letter in any other institution, one workable pattern (for junior colleges of from 500-1,000 students) is hereinbelow described.

Vocations Day is given once each year. The best time at Orange Coast College has proved to be early in October, immediately after those problems incident to the beginning of a new school year have subsided. A three-hour and fifteen-minute time block is set aside for Vocations Day. This time is divided into two ninety-minute periods separated by a fifteen-minute intermission. During each of the ninety-minute periods, five separate panels, each representing a particular family of vocations, convene at a designated place. Students are permitted to select and attend one panel from the first five and another panel from the second five. Under this organizational plan, each student attends two panels selected by him from the ten offered.

The moderator may be a member of the college faculty or a lay participant. Selection of a faculty member for this function is advantageous in that such a person is likely to be more conversant with overall objectives and can also serve as a host to the visiting panel members. However, the use

of a layman in this capacity has the advantage of exposing the students to an all-practitioner group, separate and distinct from their everyday contact with staff members.

Each of the ten panel groups should be composed of from four to seven experts (five is believed to be the optimum number) plus a moderator. Arrangements should be completed whereby each expert comes prepared to present a five- to eight-minute summary of his field on (1) immediate and long-range job possibilities, (2) minimum essential training, (3) personal qualifications needed, (4) rewards to be expected, (5) what the work actually involves. Each panel member should be identified and introduced by the moderator and should present his organized talk. Small signs placed on the table in front of speakers giving names and vocational specialty are very helpful, especially during the discussion period. Students should be provided with paper slips with instructions that questions be jotted down as they arise; otherwise, the tendency is for the last two speakers to have directed to them a disproportionate share of the questions.

At the conclusion of the formal presentation, the moderator should open the meeting to questions from the floor. Among junior college students no particular timidity has been noted in these open question-answer periods. Instructors who are in the audience may be asked to participate if the organizer wishes to insure against possible student reticence. The question-answer portion of Vocations Day is the most productive part of the program, for it is there that students get answers to their specific problems. However, the short talks which precede this portion are believed to set the stage for the queries. Also, the generalizations presented provide the student with a basis for weighing the merits of a given vocation in the light of his desires and abilities.

A luncheon for all lay participants and teachers given immediately after the sessions is recommended. Here instructors have an opportunity to meet and converse with the experts. The exchanges of information which take place have double value—the teachers profit by the direct contact with the laymen, and the school is given an opportunity to present its faculty to an important group of community members. The mutual respect and understanding which such informal contact fosters is conducive to closer and more harmonious school-community relationships. Even though this is a by-product of Vocations Day, the public relations values should not be underestimated.

Anyone who attempts to organize a Vocations Day along the lines suggested here is certain to encounter some rather challenging scheduling problems. To determine how the ten major sections are

to be subdivided into two groups, each composed of five families of occupations, is no simple task. Inasmuch as each student is expected to select and attend two of the sections, the ideal arrangement would provide conditions under which both the first and the second choice of the student would be available. If all ten sections could be given during the first half of Vocations Day and duplicated during the second half, this would be possible. The flaw in this arrangement is that it would require two performances by each expert or the selection of two individuals for each field. In a large metropolitan area, this might offer no particular problem. For most junior colleges it offers an almost insurmountable one, and a plan which reduces to a minimum conflicts among students' choices must be adopted.

The final and certainly not the least important step in staging a Vocations Day is the matter of evaluation. There are three principal groups involved in determining the success of Vocations Day—students, teachers, and lay participants (panel members). The greatest asset to be derived from a thorough evaluation is the disclosure of ways and means to strengthen subsequent "Days." The evaluation report of the previous year is the logical starting point for the person charged with organizing such a Day.

Several means are employed to ascertain student reaction. One revealing source of information is obtained through the cooperation of social science instructors who devote approximately one-half of a period to a class discussion which is summarized and forwarded to the organizer. Written comments may be obtained through assignments made by instructors in the student's major field. During the most recent Vocations Day at Orange Coast College, tape recordings were made of several panels, and these were replayed in classes, at which time a careful examination of their content was made. A check list "Reaction Sheet" may be circulated in all classes immediately after Vocations Day, and the organizer may thus obtain more thorough coverage in terms of number of students contacted than the less formalized approaches. However, the usual limitations of check lists must be given due recognition.

Teacher reaction has been measured quite successfully through the medium of a short questionnaire released immediately after the conclusion of Vocations Day. This questionnaire asks for comments on (1) adequacy of time schedule, meeting place, and physical facilities, (2) name or subject of speakers who were unusually strong or weak, (3) opinion of organizational scheme, topical breakdown, and panel composition, (4) estimate of student reaction, and (5) other comments or recommendations. These sheets are collected and summarized by the

organizer at a Vocations Day Committee meeting held within a few days after the panel meetings. In this meeting all aspects of the preceding "Day" are critically and constructively examined, and the minutes of this meeting become the final report which is filed away for use the following year. This report also contains the opinions expressed by any of the panel members to the college staff. During the luncheon immediately after the termination of the panel sessions, comments from panel members are sought. Thus, the reactions of panel members are obtained through informal channels and are perhaps less complete but more frank than written statements are likely to be.

In conclusion, it should be stressed that while it is certainly no panacea, Vocations Day, as a part of a group counseling program, has proved its worth. The person charged with the primary responsibility of organizing must be constantly aware of the fact that if such a device is to be of continuing value, it must be evolutionary in nature. The contemporary economic and political pictures have a significant bearing on student felt needs and must be given proper recognition in planning such a day. To counsel out of improper fields as well as to counsel into proper fields will be one of the desirable outcomes of this meeting of students and practitioners.

From the Executive Secretary's Desk

JESSE P. BOGUE

THIS is Sunday, March 9, 1952. The *Desk* is in the Gunter Hotel, San Antonio, Texas. It has been on the move for a month and two days. "On the move" is well chosen because almost all the stands have been for one or two days, with a few exceptions. Our good Board of Directors may call our wanderings in question, but being people of broad understanding they may forgive us because this route of travel was mapped out previous to the meeting of the Board in January. Already the news has been passed along to the members of the Association that the writer should slow down a little in his traveling. We shall try to do just that as soon as present promises have been carried out.

We have served with satisfaction and real pleasure with several boards of control. The present Board of Directors of the American Association of Junior Colleges is, however, one of the best with which we have ever worked. It is one of the first to request us "to take things just a little easier" and to make provision for us to accomplish this purpose. As a rule, boards of control tend to be on the driving end of the line. Our Board of the Association, while well aware of work which should be done, is concerned for the aspects of the work which should now receive major emphasis. We are in full agreement with the Board and shall do our best to carry out the expressed wishes, namely, that a little more time shall be spent in Washington, major contacts be made with the membership at state and regional meetings, and less time spent on the summer seminars and workshops. The question is one of relative values in respect to how much one person can or should be expected to do in a large organization.

* * *

Well, this field trip has been one of constant pleasure, stimulation, and interest. In addition, we have learned many things about our colleges which could not have been learned second-hand. We have become better acquainted with several administrators and staff members, with teachers, students, board members, and citizens. We have attended and spoken to service clubs, chambers of commerce, and have addressed radio audiences. Everywhere hospitality has been sincere and generous. How could anyone possibly wish to be associated with a more friendly and wonderful people than are found in the junior colleges? We often ask ourselves this question and answer it by saying, "We can't think of any." The folks, too, whom we meet from senior colleges and universities appear to be deeply interested in our work and the further development of the junior colleges.

The trip started from Washington on February 7. The first stop was Athens, Georgia. Here we took part in a two-day conference with the junior and senior colleges of the state. The main theme was "The Role of the Liberal Arts in Education for Leadership in a Democratic Society." Our particular part was to present certain points of view on how the programs of junior and senior colleges could be better integrated. We were ably assisted by a panel of competent persons: Henry King Stanford, Vice Chancellor of the Georgia University system; Hugh Stickler, Coordinator of General Education, Florida State University; Lloyd Moll, President, Georgia Southwestern College; Foreman Hawes, President, Armstrong Junior College, Savannah.

One point of emphasis was: Recognize the dignity and integrity of junior colleges by granting blanket credit for advanced study to graduates who have completed all work for the A.A. degree and have the recommendation of the head of the junior college. This position will bring junior colleges much in line with policies of colleges and high schools. It is recognized that if the candidate changes his curriculum, prerequisites for satisfactory sequence work will need to be made up by the student. It was further suggested that the freshman and sophomore years in all colleges could be improved and transition from one level to the next facilitated by agreement on and cooperation in the further development of general education areas of study. This step would bring about greater similarity in liberal education in the first two years of the academic program. The findings so far and experiments in general education appear to justify the main claims for this program. The job now is one of around-the-table blue-print planning between all educational institutions concerned.

* * *

From Athens we traveled to Oxford, Georgia, where Emory-at-Oxford, one of the two junior colleges of Emory University, is located. The campus was originally occupied by Emory University, now situated at Atlanta. The other junior college is Emory at Valdosta in the southeastern section of the state. Both of these schools are moving in the direction of four-year programs, eleventh through the fourteenth grades. The programs are being designed for both vertical and lateral integration, the vertical to eliminate duplication of subject matter within the four-year span and the lateral to integrate certain specific disciplines into broader areas of basic education. Both schools are for men and are definitely University parallel in their objectives. With an assured outlet in Emory University for well qualified graduates, the schools have a free hand to proceed with their programs. Also, both of them have units of the Air

R.O.T.C. by virtue of their association with the University.

We were impressed by the progress at Oxford since our visit to the college two years previously. At that time, studies were being initiated. Since then, steady advancement has been made. Dean Eady has the wholehearted support of the University and the enthusiastic interest of his staff and faculty. Several problems, however, remain for future solutions respecting the exact construction of curriculums especially in the physical and life sciences. The efforts of the Emory Junior Colleges should prove to be of unusual interest in education.

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We traveled to Reinhardt College at Waleska where President Burgess is building a first-class junior college. A new administration building has been completed with a special wing for the library. The chapel is one of real beauty and is used by the entire community for church services on Sunday. The college cooperates with the community also in the education of high school students. One night we attended a dinner provided by the elementary school teachers for a community council of teachers and citizens. A program was presented at which we spoke briefly. The main project for this year is the improvement of the appearance of the community—clean-up, paint-up, repair, planting trees, shrubs, and flowers—on a community-wide basis. It should be said that an endowment of $250,000 was given the college at the time the new administration building was completed. This fund will insure proper maintenance of the college plant.

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From Georgia we sailed through the air to Texas. Alvin Junior College housed us at the Shamrock Hotel in Houston, and we drove back and forth to the college—just a little distance of about forty miles. Alvin was organized as a four-year junior college and is located on the great central campus where practically all education for the community is carried on. The people of the community refused to accept state aid for the junior college in view of the fact that if they did so, they would have to charge $50.00 a year tuition. So, they just made it tuition free for all students. This means that they are turning down about $178 a year per student in state assistance. Is there any other junior college in the United States which has followed a policy of this kind?

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From Alvin we traveled with Neal Nelson, registrar at Alvin, to Wharton County Junior College for a meeting of students from several junior colleges who are cooperating in the citizenship studies and programs. This movement is being spearheaded by The University of Texas, and Dr. James W. Reynolds is giving a great deal of his time to the work. Dr. Rey-

nolds assists the students in organizing their own regional groups which are composed largely of student governments from the various colleges. A movement is on foot now to bring the regional groups together into a state organization. It seems to us that this project is one of really great merit because it stimulates the young people to greater efforts to govern themselves. The general principles which were discussed in the day's program were in many respects quite similar to those involved in good government in any community. We had an opportunity to inspect the splendid new college plant which has been erected recently under the leadership of President J. M. Hodges. One feature of the college which is unique is the Soil Laboratory. This is housed in a new and attractive building and is fully equipped for soil testing for farmers and ranchmen of the community.

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The next stop was Corpus Christi where Del Mar College is located. The occasion was the dedication of three new buildings—an auditorium seating 1,800, a new library with space for 50,000 volumes, and a spacious gymnasium. All funds were provided by the local community—no federal or state funds of any kind.

A work conference was held for three days with representatives of several Texas junior colleges. Dr. Harvin and his staff and faculty have led this community in a remarkable development both in the building programs and the kind of education needed by a dynamic and rapidly expanding industrial community. It should be noted that seven people are registered for college credit work at night for every one so registered for daytime classes.

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From Corpus Christi we went to Victoria where we visited a brand-new college located on an expansive campus. We have seen many colleges, but Victoria is, in our judgment, the most and the best for the money expended that we have ever seen. It was fortunately completed in 1949, at a time when builders were competing for contracts. For about $800,000, the college secured an administration and classroom building, gymnasium and student union, extensive shop buildings, home economics house, and a men's dormitory. The buildings are connected by covered walks and all are of the same architectural pattern. Any community contemplating the construction of a new college plant should visit Victoria. We are certain that one decisive factor in the quality of construction and the economy of the project was the unusual business ability of President J. D. Moore. The community is one of great wealth. It is claimed that there are twenty people living in Victoria who are rated as millionaires. The city has a population of 20,000, one millionaire for each 1,000 people.

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The next stop was at Texas Southmost College, located at Brownsville, in the Magic Valley. This school is housed in the former buildings of a military establishment. Ingenious arrangements have been made in all of the permanent buildings for proper use for college purposes. Except for the outside of the plant, one would never believe that the military had ever occupied it. The day we arrived was known as Charro Fiesta Day, one of the many border celebrations held each year to bring the peoples of Mexico and the United States closer together in understanding and friendship. Up until this year the college has operated without local tax support. This year the people of the district have voted to levy a tax in support of the college. There appeared to be very strong ties of friendship and cooperation between the whole community and the college. The latter is doing splendid work for the youth of Brownsville as well as the adults, and this work has special significance for the Latin American citizens.

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About forty miles up the Rio Grande Valley is the lovely city of Edinburg. The college here was originally organized as the Edinburg Regional College. At the recent session of the legislature, the name was changed to Pan American College, with the thought that programs will be offered to cement the Americas closer together by means of educational programs designed for this purpose. This college will be organized into three main divisions: the junior college, continuing education and community services, and the senior division. We had the pleasure of speaking to the students and also to a meeting of the faculty, the Board of Regents, and citizens. The college is serving a very large territory and many students are brought to the institution by school busses. The Rio Grande Valley is rather thickly populated because of the great productivity of the soil and a climate that favors several crops each year.

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Superintendent Ward of Edinburg, who will become the president of Pan American College, drove us to Laredo, about 150 miles on up the Valley. He said, "You can tell people that you rode over 100 miles of highway which has had practically no rain for two years." Water is the real problem. On the way to Laredo we drove into the grounds where the great Falcon Dam is under construction—a joint project with Mexico. The top of this dam will be fourteen miles long when completed and will impound the waters of the Rio Grande for use in the Valley and in Mexico. Whole villages are being moved and the main highways are being re-routed. We spent a delightful Sunday and Monday with President Jack Adkins and the Laredo College people. One feature was a visit to one of

the ranches far out on the banks of the Rio Grande River. Laredo College occupies the former buildings of a military establishment. As at Brownsville, the buildings are of permanent construction and have been remodeled in a remarkable manner to provide for college use. Here, too, a far-reaching program of work has been instituted to meet the needs of the youth and adults with special attention to many of the Latin American people. We addressed the students and were duly made a temporary Texan with suitable ceremonies, a diploma, and a Texas hat which we promptly donned and wore on the remainder of the trip and back to Washington. The leather craft shop also made us a belt with original design by a GI who was greatly handicapped from war wounds.

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The next hop was to Uvalde, home of Cactus Jack Garner, former Vice President of the United States. The 150 miles between Laredo and Uvalde was split by Jack Adkins and H. S. von Roeder, President of Southwest Texas College, each covering half the distance and setting us on our way to Uvalde. This college occupies the grounds and buildings of a former air field. The buildings are of good construction and the grounds are landscaped, although the big freeze of two years ago did considerable damage to the palm trees which lined many of the drives and walks. Southwest Texas College also serves a large area, and students from many villages and the countryside travel by school busses. We addressed the students at assembly, took part in a radio round table, and spoke to the faculty, Board of Regents, and citizens at a chicken barbecue dinner at night. Dr. von Roeder, a man of fine scholarship and ability, is leading this community in the development of an excellent junior college. Because of the extensive territory served by the college, dormitories have been established for men and women. This seems to be the only solution to colleges located in regions which are sparsely settled. The distances are too great to be traveled on a daily schedule.

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Dr. and Mrs. von Roeder took us to San Antonio, some eighty miles distant, to catch a plane for Odessa in West Texas. Outside of Texas one hears about Texas; inside the state one hears about all sorts of sections—East Texas, South Texas, West Texas, etc. The pride of the people within the state for their section almost rivals that of a Texan for the state as a whole when he is outside the state. Odessa is located within the region of one of the richest oil developments in the world, and hence there is more money than water. Odessa is high and dry with sand storms frequent in the spring of the year. Under the leadership of Murry Fly, who has been associated with the public schools for

twenty-seven years, a great new plant is gradually coming to completion. We arrived in the midst of Western Week, as the students call it. Everyone dons western outfits. The only things which saved us from a tank of water on the front campus were the Texas hat and belt. For a tenderfoot and stranger these adornments were proper qualifications for admission to the college. We met with the faculty, took part in a radio round table discussion, and in the evening we met with the Board of Regents and guests at the ranch home of Mr. and Mrs. Hence Barrow. The main ranch covers seventeen sections of land. President Fly has been successful not only in being far-sighted in planning for the future needs of this rapidly growing community, but also in leading the people to take steps to provide for these needs. Many sites were secured for new school buildings in advance of the city's growth, and when the population reached and surrounded the sites, new school buildings were ready for their children. Odessa presents one of the best examples of foresight and community leadership we have observed in all of our travels. Within twenty-seven years Mr. Fly has seen the school attendance increase from a few hundred to over 10,000, and all students are housed in modern classrooms.

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We reached Big Spring from Odessa just in time to get a little taste of what a sand storm is like. Here we have the splendidly constructed Howard County Junior College. One of our first jobs in 1946 when we came to Washington was to assist President Dodd to secure a lease on some military buildings in which the college was started. Dr. Dodd has led the community in the development of the college and remarkable progress has been made. In addition, the erection of the college buildings stimulated the community to build a new high school plant costing over $1,000,000. Here is a good example of the influence of the college on progress for the whole school system. Dodd and a group of business and professional men meet each day for coffee at a downtown hotel. This informal, friendly daily meeting has probably been one of the factors in the backing of the community of several of the progressive movements for better education. We are glad to pass the idea of this sort of gathering along to other junior college people.

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San Angelo was the next logical stop because our destination was San Antonio. San Angelo is just as beautiful as its name—located where three branches of the Concho River converge—it's just the size and planned kind of city where one would like to settle down and really live. A new dam has been constructed across one of the Concho branches. It is eight miles in length and will create an enormous

lake of fresh water. The college has secured a fifty-year lease on 6,000 acres of land bordering the lake where wild life preserves will be established for study and management and a demonstration farm will be developed. The college plant is spacious and new in every respect. It's really a beauty. The citizens not only voted a tax for its construction, but also raised over a half million dollars to make the plant complete for present needs. In addition, the Home Economics House was the gift of one person who was especially interested in this project. Apparently, nothing has been spared in the construction, equipment, and furnishing of this house, and the response of the young women to the program is one of the best we have seen anywhere. Dr. Bryan Wildenthal and his co-workers are extending their services to the entire community including classes to a military installation under the "bootstraps" program of education. We had a splendid discussion with the faculty and attended a meeting of the West Texas Chamber of Commerce. The college has dormitories for men and women because it serves an extensive territory. The dining room is one of the most beautiful we have seen at any college, and the response of students to this sort of environment is just what one might expect.

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Finally, we arrived at San Antonio where about 170 delegates had assembled from the faculties of the junior colleges in Texas. Dr. Reynolds, Dr. Colvert, Dr. Roosevelt Basler of George Peabody College, and Dr. Doak Campbell, President of Florida State University and the first Executive Secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, and this writer were the headline speakers. Many groups of teachers were assembled for discussions on Saturday, March 8, at the new plant of San Antonio College. A tour of the college was arranged for the delegates. The San Antonio buildings are modernistic in design, flooded with light, attractive in color, beautifully furnished, and present just about the last word for this type of community institution. President J. O. Loftin deserves great credit for his leadership in the development of San Antonio. Along with the progress at San Antonio College is that of St. Philips for Negroes. We had the pleasure of addressing the combined faculties of St. Philips and San Antonio and of speaking to the students of the latter school.

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From San Antonio we came to Paducah, Kentucky, where we have one of the two public junior colleges in the state. Everyone was filled with enthusiasm because the basketball squad had just won the state and conference championship. The college is supported by local taxes, student tuitions, and special gifts. A new building has been completed recently, and plans are in the making for another

sometime in the future. The day was spent in faculty conferences and with the Board of Trustees at night with respect to the future development of the college and its program. Paducah is growing rapidly because of the half billion dollar atomic energy plant which is under construction. Ultimately, this and other manufacturing plants will bring many permanent residents to the city. The problems now facing the junior college relate largely to the future planning and construction to keep pace with the population. Dean R. G. Matheson is an untiring worker and is devoting himself to the Paducah project at a great deal of personal sacrifice. He and his faculty are making great efforts to get the college ready for accreditation by the Southern Association.

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Well, that's the story for this time. What does it all mean? We learned a few things: (1) Real leadership is the key to community progress. Leaders must be ahead of the crowd, but not so far ahead that the crowd can't see them and follow them. (2) Texas is all that even the Texans say it is—big, booming, daring, vital, and ready to tackle any worthwhile undertaking. (3) The junior colleges we saw in Georgia, Texas, and Kentucky were on the move to make their programs meet the needs of students and the communities. Even the privately-controlled junior colleges seem to be more aware of their community responsibilities than ever before. (4) It is most refreshing to find communities which are moving ahead on their own resources without appealing to the federal government for assistance. (5) The whole trip was a re-baptism of enthusiasm for junior colleges, their faculties, boards of control, their students, and the citizens of the communities. We honestly believe that this movement in American life is and will continue to be one of the saving elements for democracy. It will surely assist in keeping responsibility in the hands of local groups of people right where it belongs. It is reaching into the homes of many thousands of people whose children otherwise would never believe that they had a chance at further education beyond high school. One simply can't move about on a trip such as we have been privileged to have without being convinced again that the United States is still sound at heart, and that there's nothing in all the world comparable to our educational system. The interest and sacrifices of the people to provide for both private and public education is one of the wonders of the world. Don't let anyone tell you it isn't!

Notes on the Authors

MARION GAITHER KENNEDY

ARTHUR S. ADAMS, President of the American Council on Education, has written the editorial for this month entitled, *The Uses of Adversity.*

HAROLD H. PUNKE, author of *Curiosity of Youth and the Future of Science,* is Professor of Education at Alabama Polytechnic Institute.

In *Students Advise Faculty Advisers,* MARY RAIT describes a sophomore counseling program initiated at Mesa College where she is Vice President and Dean of Women.

Instructor Rating Sheets is an article by WALTER E. RAUCH in which he describes a device for determining the effectiveness of teaching procedures. Mr. Rauch is Chairman of General Education and Director of Public Relations of the Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences of the State University of New York.

World Languages for the Junior College Student was written by V. J. GINGERICH, Chairman of the Department of Languages of Sault Branch, Michigan College of Mining and Technology. Dr. Gingerich was formerly Instructor of Foreign Languages at Burlington Junior College.

The G. E. D. and the Social Studies was written by HYMEN M. CHAUSOW who is Instructor of Social Science at the Wright Branch of Chicago City Junior College.

STEPHEN E. EPLER, Director of the Vanport Extension Center, has contributed the article, *Scholarships in the Junior College.*

WILLIAM J. CRANE, graduate student and graduate assistant in the Department of Education of Yale University, contributed *Work Experience Programs in Junior College.*

JANE A. BLOSSOM has written about *The Internship Program at Endicott Junior College* where she was formerly Public Relations Officer.

BILL J. PRIEST has described *Vocations Day—An Effective Group Counseling Device* as it has developed at Orange Coast College where he is Dean of the Evening College and Coordinator of Vocational Education.

P. E. SMITH, Instructor of Mathematics at Austin (Texas) High School, has reviewed *Teaching Mathematics in the Secondary School* for this month's *Judging the New Books* section.

Recent Writings

JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS

KINNEY, Lucien Blair, and PURDY, Richard C. *Teaching Mathematics in the Secondary School.* New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1952. Pp. xvi + 381. $5.00.

The introductory chapter of this book provides a detailed discussion of the importance of mathematics in modern culture. Mathematics is considered necessary in the training of leaders for many important areas of modern life, indispensable for many specialized vocational and professional fields, and essential for citizenship competence and the common affairs of everyday living.

The development of the mathematics curriculum of the American secondary schools is traced. It is emphasized that in order to survive, the school must continue to provide the services for which it was created and must be flexible enough to serve these educational needs. In this the mathematics teacher has a vital responsibility. Programs in mathematics must be provided to develop the mathematical competence of special college and vocational groups and to give all citizens the preparation needed to meet the "requirements of the home and community activities and the problems of consumership, public affairs, and leisure and recreational activities."

The chapter entitled, "How to Direct Learning in Mathematics," surveys the problem on interest and motivation and describes an approach to teaching mathematics. The teacher studies each pupil to find his interests and abilities, determines his readiness for new experiences and concepts, and then provides a stimulating environment in which learning may take place. Learning is related to real life experiences calling for the use of the concepts developed. Significantly the learning process in mathematics is presented as inductive.

Three chapters are focused on the teaching of algebra, geometry, and advanced high school mathematics. Aims, course content, approaches to the subject, general teaching procedures, and procedures for teaching special topics are treated.

After citing the lack of proficiency of most adults in everyday situations involving mathematics, it is asserted that "it is in the area of 'mathematics for use' that the mathematics program of today needs adjustment to the needs of youth and of society." Mathematics programs for general education from the seventh grade through the fourteenth grade are described.

The teaching of general mathematics in the junior high school, the high school, and the junior college is treated in separate chapters. For each level, the aims, objectives,

content, and organization of courses and procedures for developing and improving problem-solving ability are discussed. The importance of attention to maintaining arithmetic skills is stressed, and actual teaching practices of successful teachers are described.

Junior college mathematics programs are considered in the chapters titled "College-Preparatory Courses in the Junior College," and "General Mathematics in the Junior College." In the first of these chapters, the types of college-preparatory courses, their purposes, and the general teaching procedures and administrative aspects involved are presented. The teaching of college algebra is discussed at some length. The treatment of analytic geometry and the calculus is less detailed. The other chapter mentioned involves a discussion of the purposes, organization, and special aspects of general mathematics in the junior college.

Teaching aids for mathematics, such as the motion picture, slides, the blackboard, and other common visual aids, are given attention. The proper classroom setting for the teaching of mathematics is considered to be of particular importance.

Appropriately for a modern presentation of teaching, a chapter is devoted to a discussion of the planning and organization of the long unit assignment. The authors regard the long unit as having "special values in providing opportunity for varied and useful activities in the classroom."

Another chapter deals with the construction and uses of tests for identifying and measuring the desired outcomes of mathematics instruction. The characteristics, uses, advantages, and limitations of the completion, true-false, multiple choice, and matching types of tests are summarized, and precautions to be exercised in the construction of these tests are given. The special uses of tests in identifying difficulties in problem solving are described.

The final chapter deals with recreational mathematics which is useful for improving pupil attitudes and appreciations and for removal of emotional blocks, thus making classwork more effective.

The tables, diagrams, and specific examples found throughout the book add to its effectiveness. Selected bibliographies are provided at the end of each chapter.

Although only a relatively small part of the book is devoted specifically to the area of junior college level mathematics, the authors' presentation of their philosophy of mathematics teaching, their appreciation for the social values of mathematics and for its importance in general education, and their careful treatment of the psychology of learning as applied to mathematics teaching make *The Teaching of Mathematics in the Secondary School* deserving of serious study by both beginning and experienced teachers of mathematics in the junior college.

—P. E. SMITH

Selected Reference

H. F. BRIGHT

Donahue, Wilma. "Experiments in the Education of Older Adults," *Adult Education*, II (December, 1951), 49-59.

Results of psychological studies have documented the widely accepted assumption that mental abilities decline with age. Perhaps as a result it has been thought that education of the older adult is useless. Coupled with this situation has been a lack of appreciation of the implications for education of increases in average longevity and of the resulting larger numbers of aged persons in the population. The present article describes experimentation with education of older adults at the University of Michigan based on the following assumptions:

1. The use of any psychological function will retard its decay.

2. The exercise of an ability can restore its function.

3. As aging people realize the need to prepare for useful later living they will be motivated to learn the changes caused by age and appropriate adjustments to them.

The first noncredit twelve week course on adjustment to aging was offered at the University of Michigan in the spring of 1948 and was open to all interested persons. The students listed as most valuable, topics such as: psychological aspects of aging; biology of aging; mental health; physical health; and living arrangements. The least helpful were listed as those dealing with creative activities, recreational and cultural pursuits, a result which would not perhaps be predicted by most educationists. In general, the students liked the course and recommended that it be continued.

Further courses were subsequently set up on a similar pattern. Participants varied widely as to age and as to educational, social, and occupational backgrounds. Various further lecture series, clubs, and programs of divers sorts resulted from the activities of participants after completion of these courses and encouraged the belief that older people have the ability and energy to work out their own problems. Hence, a workshop type course was initiated limited to twelve persons. The students decided to study: satisfactions and dissatisfactions of older people with the church; employment and training opportunities for older women in the community; and a plan for establishing a community center for older people.

The groups worked with great effectiveness in developing their studies and the projects have been continued. An interesting phase of the development of the course was the fact that the older members in each group (75-80 years) were the most active.

Further development of the program involves the setting up of a course which combines educational experience with social and recreational activities in a class meeting for several hours and including an evening lunch.

A series of courses has also been given in this program through television. Students enrolling received supplementary printed materials and reading lists. Many other persons, of course, viewed the presentations. Each telecourse meeting lasted twenty minutes and consisted of demonstrations of hobbies and their development by older persons and by guest experts.

The author concludes that older people can learn and want to. Active participation is important in educational experiences of this sort. Demand is growing and all sorts of educational agencies must prepare to provide education and guidance in adjustment to aging.